Article.	Unit.	Official value.	Rate
			Pr. ct.
Kerosene, naphtha, and petroleum	Liter	$0 07	25
Starch:			
Rice	Kilo	19	(*)
All other kinds	....do	11.5	(*)
Rice, North American	....do	11	2
Sugar:			
Refined	....do	18	2
White or crushed	....do	13.5	2
Brown	....do	11	2
Codfish	....do	13	2
Biscuits and crackers	....do	27.5	(*)
Corned beef	....do	13	2
Pickled pork	....do	13	2
Cigars:			
Havanas in boxes	....do	4 25	4
All others in boxes	....do	1 70	4
Fire-crackers, boxes of 20 gross	Box	1 40	4
Candies, assorted	Kilo	65	2
Vegetables, preserved	.. do	37.5	2
Fish, preserved	....do	50	2
Pickles:			
English, or their imitations, in jars	Dozen	1 75	2
All other kinds, in jars	... do	1 00	2
In barrels	Kilo	17.5	2
Pilot bread	do	08.5	(*)
Flour and corn-meal	100 Kilos	8 00	(*)
Flour, of rice, rye, or oats	Kilo	17.5	2
Soap:			
White	....do	20	2
Yellow	....do	10	2
Hams	....do	55	2
Condensed milk	....do	65	2
Butter	....do	55	2
Lard	....do	30	2
Molasses:			
Refined	Liter	26	2
Common	... do	13	2
Oysters	Kilo	35	2
Wicking (North American)	....do	55	2
Dried fish	....do	14	2
Beans	....do	06	2
Cheese, English, Dutch, and analogous	....do	55	2
Salmon:			
In oil	....do	65	2
In kits	....do	50	2
English sauces in bottles	Dozen	3 90	2
Sardines in boxes	Box	36	2
Tobacco:			
North American, leaf	Kilo	30	4
Chewing	....do	40	4
Smoking	... do	1 00	4
Wheat	100 Kilos	4 00	(*)
Candles:			
Sperm, in packages	Package	40	2
Stearine, &c	Kilo	24	2
Alcohol in casks, &c., from 34° to 40°	Liter	14	4
Angostura bitters, in bottles	Dozen	10 00	4
Beer:			
In bottles, English, German, and Norwegian	....do	2 25	4
In casks	Liter	1 50	4
Brandy:			
In casks, up to 19°	....do	25	4
	...	3 75	4
	...	15	4
	...	1 00	2
	...	180 00	4
	...	5 60	4
	...	45 00	4
	...	4 00	4
	...	34	4
	...	18	4
	...	15 00	4
Paper:	Kilo	50	4
Linen and mixed, white or colored, for writing			
Cotton, white	....do	27.5	4
Blotting	....do	16	4

Consular reports
United States. Dept. of State
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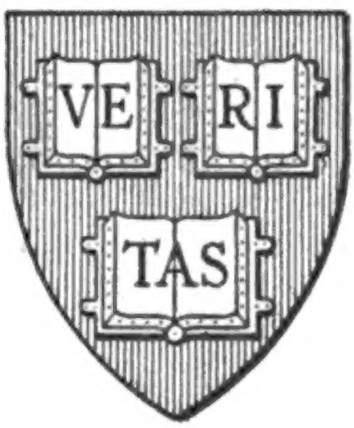

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COMMERCIAL RELATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES.

REPORTS

FROM THE

CONSULS OF THE UNITED STATES

ON THE

COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, ETC.,

OF THEIR

CONSULAR DISTRICTS.

No. 4.—February, 1881.

PUBLISHED BY THE DEPARTMENT OF STATE, ACCORDING TO ACT OF CONGRESS.

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CONSULAR REPORTS

ON

COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, ETC.

FEBRUARY, 1881.

CONTINENT OF AMERICA.

CANADA AND THE UNITED STATES.

REPORT BY COMMERCIAL AGENT BARNETT, OF OTTAWA.

IMPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES.

Turning to the consideration of imports and those articles of manufacture which the people of Canada are most likely to obtain from the United States, it may be noted, in the first place, that the trade between the two countries has experienced a decided decline since the present tariff came into operation in April, 1879. Anthracite coal, manufactured iron for bridges, hardware, pork, and breadstuffs are the only articles that have not been seriously affected. This may be accounted for by the fact that they cannot be supplied by Canadian producers. Textile fabrics of American manufacture—all cotton and woolen goods, in fact—would find a ready market here were it not for the tariff. Machinery, locomotives, and mill fixtures are still largely imported in spite of the heavy duties.

THE PROTECTIVE POLICY.

From the foregoing it will be perceived that the fiscal policy of Canada is based on the same principles as that of the United States. That it is avowedly so is conceded by those who framed and established it. Canada is not so well situated politically or geographically as the United States are for the development of native manufactories. This seems to be illustrated by the fact that while frequent attempts to establish large manufacturing concerns have been made in the province of Quebec, they have failed to retain the native population in the country; while the manufacturing towns of the Eastern States are full of French Canadians, who there find employment in the mills and factories. Perhaps this may be accounted for by the rates of wages, which are higher in the

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United States than in the Dominion, while the cost of living is no greater. In order, therefore, for Canadian manufacturers to compete successfully with the United States, wages must be increased; because the hands will not work at home for less than they can get by going a day's journey. Besides, steady employment is not always to be had on this side of the line. The superior advantages and better opportunities to be found in the United States must continue to attract the young men of the Dominion to seek their fortunes by emigration. That it will be many years before this condition of affairs will change is evident; and not until the United States is much more densely populated, and the struggle for existence consequently intensified, will Canada begin to rise to that measure of prosperity, of which its vast resources undoubtedly contain both the promise and the potency. At the same time it must not be forgotten that the relations of the two countries are so intimate that prosperity in the one is surely reflected in the other. It is a fact that cannot be gainsaid that the people of the Dominion are at this moment beneficially sharing the good times which have reappeared within the past two years in the United States.

FOREIGN TRADE OF CANADA.

Meantime persistent efforts have been made by the Government of the Dominion to extend trade to foreign countries and to open up new markets for Canadian products. As is known to most people who read commercial facts, Sir Alexander I. Galt was last year sent on a mission to France and Spain. To the former country was offered free entry of French wines in return for permission to sell Canadian-built ships in France. To Spain offers of a like reciprocal nature were made. The mission, however, did not succeed. Great Britain concluded treaties of commerce with both these countries, but the British colonies were not included in their provisions.

More successful was the attempt to open direct trade with Brazil. At the last session of the Dominion Parliament a subsidy of $50,000 a year was voted to a line of steamships to ply between the ports of Canada and Brazil, provided the Brazilian Government granted a similar sum. A few weeks ago a bill received the sanction of the Emperor of Brazil granting the required amount, and it is expected that the line will go into operation at an early date. Canadians expect to dispose, in Brazil, of the products of their mines, fisheries, forests, and fields, while they will take return cargoes of sugar, molasses, tobacco, hides, &c.

CANADIAN RAILROADS.

The great question now agitating the people of Canada is the Pacific Railway. Already it has cost the country $30,000,000 out of an estimated total expenditure for construction of $105,000,000. It is said that a bargain has been made with certain capitalists to take the whole work, on condition of receiving a subsidy in cash and land. The terms agreed upon between the government and the syndicate will not be made known until after the assembling of the Dominion Parliament. The plan of the railway is for a through line on Canadian territory from this city practically to Burrard Inlet, on the coast of British Columbia. This would include the construction of the road through the desolate and almost inaccessible region north of Lake Superior. It is thought, however, that this portion of the line will not be undertaken for some time, but, instead, that the road will be built north of Lake Huron to the Sault

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Ste. Marie, connecting at that point with the United States system of railways at Saint Paul, Minn. Decidedly, this would be the shortest and most direct transcontinental route, and seems certain to attract a large and lucrative business. The evident object of such a road would be to divert the traffic of the Northwest from the Atlantic cities of the United States to Montreal and the Saint Lawrence. From the latter point a railway now partly built would give a direct road and an accessible outlet all the year round at Saint John, New Brunswick.

It can hardly be doubted that this scheme will be carried out within a few years, and there is good reason for the belief that United States capital will aid the enterprise, which has many strong economical features in its favor. More than 100 miles of this line are now in working order west of this city, while a direct and admirably constructed and equipped railway connects Ottawa and the East with Montreal and Quebec along the northern shores of the rivers Ottawa and Saint Lawrence, connecting by the Intercolonial Railway with all the principal ports in the maritime provinces, and terminating at Halifax, Nova Scotia.

Two other lines of railway bidding for Western traffic have been projected from Ottawa City westward, one to Toronto and the other to Goderich, on Lake Huron, while an additional outlet is sought by bridging the Saint Lawrence at Coteau Landing, above Montreal, and connecting by United States lines with Boston and New York.

It will thus be seen that the Canadians are by no means insensible to the advantages to be derived from the possession of railways capable of competing with those already in existence for the great trade which is expected to arise from the settlement of the northwest territories of the Dominion.

FEELING OF THE CANADIANS TOWARD THE UNITED STATES.

The people of Canada, of all classes, as far as my means of information have gone, have only a feeling of friendship for the United States. Indeed, it must be said that the desire for closer commercial relations, at least, is universal among them. I feel sure that they would gladly welcome any proposition looking in that direction which would not involve political consequences. There is a very great number who would perhaps favor a political change for the sake of the material advantages which such a union is capable of conferring. Such, however, do not publicly avow these sentiments, from a sense that the time is not ripe for their discussion. The dislike of annexation is a remnant of the bitterness created by former wars and invasions, revived by more recent Fenian raids. I speak only as an observer called on to record his observations, and thus add that as a general thing the English-speaking Canadians entertain not less contempt for the failures of British diplomacy in America than for the manner in which the claims, which they believe to be well founded, have been treated by the Government of the United States. While intensely British, and endowed with the qualities which we all admire in that character, they are no strangers to the feeling that they are not regarded on the other side of the Atlantic in the same light as Englishmen domiciled in England. This belief, which first found expression in the second generation of Canadians, reaches the stage of not altogether unsatisfactory conviction in the third. As a consequence, we have in Canada a constantly-increasing native party, whose members talk of political independence, and constantly refer to Englishmen, Irishmen, and Scotchmen as foreigners. This sentiment is

much more widely spread than outsiders who may give the subject attention would imagine. Its strength was proved, or seems to have been proved, by the manner in which the very able premier, Sir John MacDonald, carried the country with him in the fall of 1878 by the cry of "A National Policy" and "Canada for the Canadians." The masses of the people, however, who were thus skillfully managed, wanted more than any government, however able, could bestow; but it cannot be very long before those who appreciate the real causes of Canadian depression will seek a practical solution of their difficulties. But there is no fear of a revolution in Canada. Doors are wide open all along the border through which the discontented can pass into the United States. The objects sought will be brought about by economical forces only.

The prosperity of the United States as an independent nation is a magnificent fact that stares Canada out of countenance.

* * * * * * *

THEODORE J. BARNETT,
Commercial Agent.

UNITED STATES COMMERCIAL AGENCY,
Ottawa, Canada, December 6, 1880.

TRADE BETWEEN CANADA AND THE UNITED STATES.

REPORT BY COMMERCIAL AGENT BUFFINGTON, OF CHATHAM.

EMIGRATION TO THE UNITED STATES.

The tide of emigration from Canada does not seem to be confined to any particular quarter of the Dominion, but flows as steadily from regions that are prosperous as from those where harder times prevail. The county of Kent, in which Chatham is situated, is one of the richest agricultural regions in the Dominion, and its population generally is, perhaps, more prosperous than that of any other territory of the same size within the limits of Canada, and yet, during the year ending December 31, 1880, the number of persons who obtained certificates at the commercial agency for emigration to the United States reached 77. A majority of these emigrants possessed considerable means.

From the southern part of the county quite as many more have gone by the Canada Southern Railroad, and about 30 from here who have not taken out certificates, making the total emigration from this county 184.

The cause of this emigration from *here* is certainly not hard times, for business is prosperous, labor abundant, and wages fair throughout this county. The unexampled prosperity of the United States, and the presumed avenues to wealth, and a greater prosperity there than they here enjoy, seems the only reasonable explanation for this large emigration.

AMERICAN GOODS.

The new tariff, or national policy, as it is here called, which went into effect March 14, 1879, has driven out of this market some American goods, for which a demand previously existed, prominent among which are stoves and agricultural machinery, the duties imposed on those articles enabling the Canadian manufacturers to supply the demand at lower prices than their American competitors.

The market for American cotton goods has also been seriously affected. The heavy duties upon them have induced capitalists to invest largely in the erection of manufactories in Canada for their production. New mills have been built at Cornwall, Coaticook, Hamilton, Brantford, and other places, and those near Montreal have doubled their capacity, and are now supplying the Canada market with various kinds of cotton goods, which in the past were purchased from American manufacturers.

With the exception of stoves, agricultural machinery, and cotton goods, from the best sources of information at my command I think the value of American imports here is equal to what it has been in the past. The imports at this port, however, do not show more than about 15 per cent. of the value of American goods sold here, as our dealers buy principally from the Canadian wholesale importers at Toronto and Hamilton.

After protracted and diligent inquiry as to the needs of this market for American goods, I fail to discover any want at present unsupplied, unless it be carpets, and their introduction here depends on the price at which they can be furnished. The prices paid by dealers here for English and Canadian carpets are as follows:

Union	$0.37 to $0.80
Wool, two-ply	0.70 to 0.80
Wool, two-ply, extra superior	0.85 to 0.95
Wool, three-ply, extra superior	1.20 to 1.35
Tapestry, extra superior	0.46 to 0.90
Brussels, extra superior	0.80 to 1.00

Of these goods only union and wool are made in Canada, the others are imported.

The tapestry which has the largest sale is not as desirable as ingrain, and is only three-quarters of a yard wide—thus making the cost 57½ cents to $1.12½ per square yard. If American ingrain could be laid down here free of duty at the above prices of tapestry, I think it would successfully compete with it.

The duty on treble ingrains, three-ply, composed wholly or in part of wool, is 10 cents per square yard and 30 per cent. ad valorem; on two-ply and three-ply, composed wholly or in part of cotton or other material than wool, worsted, hair of alpaca goat, or other like animal, 5 cents per square yard and 20 per cent. ad valorem.

H. C. BUFFINGTON,
Commercial Agent.

UNITED STATES COMMERCIAL AGENCY,
Chatham, Ontario, January 3, 1881.

COMMERCE AND INDUSTRIES OF BRITISH COLUMBIA.

REPORT BY CONSUL FRANCIS, OF VICTORIA.

Shipping.—During the fourth quarter of 1880 there were 36 arrivals and 34 departures of American vessels; 32 were ocean steamers, engaged in making regular monthly and semi-monthly trips from and to United States ports, and 4 were small schooners, 2 of the latter remaining in port; aggregate tonnage entering, 40,872; clearing, 40,716. Three arrivals and departures of foreign vessels; tonnage, 1,716. One vessel, the English bark Glen Fruin, coal laden, from New Castle, New South

Wales, and bound for Portland, Oreg., was wrecked on the west coast of this island on the 8th December last. No lives lost.

Imports and exports.—The value of imports in American vessels during the quarter—productions of the United States and foreign countries—amount, as reported, to $373,353, of which $220,000 were of the produce of the United States, and the exports, on the return of these vessels to the United States, to $337,901.97, of which $280,079.72 was in gold dust and bars, and $189,738.50 for coal from Nanaimo in American and foreign vessels. The imports in foreign vessels are estimated at $175,000, and the exports in the same to foreign countries—salmon, oil, and wool—$140,000. Taking the exports from the other ports in the province, principally lumber and salmon, and it is conjectured the imports and exports will about balance for the quarter.

Coal mining.—Of the industries of the province, coal mining has been the most progressive and remunerative, and shipments to San Francisco are increasing. The discovery of new coal-fields on Vancouver's Island are announced, and one is being opened in the vicinity of Nanaimo.

Gold mining.—The productiveness of the gold mines of the province have been diminishing from year to year since 1865, and the Cariboo country, once the most famous gold region on the whole coast, is almost abandoned. No new discovered gold-fields, except those reported in Alaska Territory, have been divulged, and the abating yield of those that are now worked is fast lessening the mining population and industries of the province.

Fisheries.—The output of canned salmon of the several fisheries in the province has fallen far short of the previous year, attributed mainly to diminished demand and low prices.

Fur sealing.—The waters on the west coast of Washington Territory and Vancouver's Island within the past few years have been found frequented, between the months of February and July, with a great number of fur seal. Last season some dozen schooners, American and English, were engaged in the sealing business, and, with the Indians residing on the coast, took about 60,000. Most of these fur seal find a market in this city, as do also those taken in Alaska waters, and go to swell the fur shipments from this port.

Agriculture.—It is manifest by the continued shipments of flour, wheat, oats, barley, hay, and live stock to this market that but little progress has been made in farming, though these products are protected by a high tariff. The unsatisfactory state of affairs connected with the building of the Canadian Pacific Railroad on the mainland and on the island, and the long delay in prosecuting its construction, have driven farmers from the province, and turned this class of emigrants towards Washington Territory and Oregon.

AMERICAN GOODS.

Pains have been taken to learn what particular class of American goods are most in demand in this market. All kinds are found, from a needle to a thrashing-machine, though none are imported direct from the manufactories, and many have preference over the productions of other countries. There has been only a very limited trade opened between this province and the Eastern States. In this city there are five or six wholesale houses, and all dealing more or less in American goods, which are purchased in San Francisco. Of retail establishments, dealing in dry goods, hardware, steel, iron, cutlery, agricultural implements, groceries, ship stores, boots and shoes, &c., some thirty, also pur-

chasing in San Francisco and Portland, Oreg. Several merchants, by the way of experiment, within the past year have ordered goods from Canada, which have been shipped across the continent by rail and in a sailing vessel by the way of Cape Horn. In the case of the former, in the line of American goods, I am told they find it more advantageous to purchase in San Francisco, and the 170 or more days by sailing vessels, involving so much delay, and payment for the goods so many months before their arrival, found to leave the merchant no margin for profit, and the goods out of season, this experiment meets with no favor.

ALLEN FRANCIS,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Victoria, Vancouver's Island, January 3, 1881.

COMMERCE AND INDUSTRIES OF NEW BRUNSWICK.

REPORT BY CONSUL WARNER, OF SAINT JOHN.

Shipping.—There cleared from this port during the year ending 30th June, 1880, 458,880 tons of shipping, of which over 45 per cent. cleared to the United States. The increase of American tonnage cleared from this port during the same time was nearly 26 per cent. over the preceding year, and the increased value of their cargoes about 25 per cent. The value of the cargoes of American ships amounted to about 25 per cent. of the entire exports from Saint John during the year, and to about two-thirds of the exports from this port to the United States.

The value of the cargoes which our vessels brought into this port amounts to over 20 per cent. of the entire imports and almost two-thirds of the imports from the United States during the same time.

Ship-building.—The ship-building interest in this province, I may say, is steadily declining. In 1877-'78 new tonnage amounting to between 25,000 and 26,000 tons was registered in this port. In 1878-'79 the amount was between 16,000 and 17,000 tons. In 1879-'80 the new tonnage amounted to only 10,935 tons. The activity in freights for coasting vessels, on account of the great demand for lumber vessels for United States ports, has stimulated to some extent the building of this class of vessels.

There is not much hope, however, in the minds of ship-builders that there will be any increased demand for new vessels owing to the large increase of iron steamers with all the latest fuel-saving improvements, &c., which are fast taking the place of sailing vessels. A large proportion of the vessels built during the year are barks ranging from 900 to 1,300 tons.

Business outlook.—The general business outlook is much brighter than it was at this time last year. Then manufacturers of lumber at this port were losing money on every cargo shipped; now the reverse is the case; the same manufacturers are realizing handsome profits. I think I am safe in saying that this season is the best the lumber manufacturers have had for many years.

Manufactories of other kinds have not increased to that extent that was hoped for by friends of the protective tariff policy.

Rates of interest.—Money is very plenty, the banks refusing to pay more than 3 per cent. on deposits, and then only with the guarantee that the money is to remain for not less than three months. That this great

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plethora of money in the country means increase of business is by many doubted, but rather that it indicates a want of confidence in capitalists seeking investments who prefer security at low rates of interest rather than engage in new enterprises.

Lumber exports.—The preparation for this winter's logging operations are on a very large scale, and the exports of lumber for next year will in all probability be the largest on record in the province.

The total exports of lumber from January 1 to November 1, 1880, from this port were 275,000,000 feet. It will be safe to estimate the shipments for the entire year at 300,000,000 feet. Twenty-five per cent. of this lumber went to the United States market, over three-quarters of which was American lumber manufactured by American citizens at this port and shipped under section 2508 Revised Statutes of the United States.

Imports.—The total imports at Saint John for the year ending June 30, 1880, are a little over a million dollars less than they were for the preceding year. By a comparison of the detailed statement of imports, it would seem that the increase of duties has affected importation from Great Britain more than it has from the United States.

In the opinion of honest dealers and merchants, the actual decrease of importations for the year is very small. Indeed, many dealers believe that the consumption of foreign goods is greater than for many years past, and that the amount of smuggling along the border is only limited by the demand for the articles needed.

Mining.—In mining there has been some excitement during the year. Three companies for the mining of antimony have been organized and incorporated under the laws of New Brunswick, at Prince William, in York County, and are now in operation. These mines are controlled by citizens of the United States.

Some veins of maganese have been discovered in Albert County this year which are thought to be very rich; but little has been done as yet towards their exploration.

The company at Charlotte County is making some preparations to work its silver mine.

Since my last report it is greatly feared that the celebrated Albert coal mines are about exhausted. These mines have turned out in the last twenty-two years coal valued at nearly $4,000,000, and have, during that time, given steady employment to a large number of miners.

I have no new developments to report about the anthracite coal mine at Lepreaux.

Crops.—The crops of all kinds throughout the province have been abundant and have been harvested in good condition. There seems to be a steady and healthy increase in the interests of agriculture. Wheat, the production of which had been almost entirely abandoned for many years past, has lately been steadily increasing in acreage, and I believe I am safe in saying if the same increase continues proportionately for five years sufficient wheat will be raised for breadstuffs for the province.

Railroads.—The railroad enterprises now talked of, if prosecuted to consummation, will tend very largely to the rapid and extensive development of the most valuable agricultural districts in this province.

The Grand Southern Railroad, which will be completed next spring, connects Saint John by another route with the New Brunswick Railroad, at present extending to Edmonston on the Saint John River and near the Quebec line. The company who have recently purchased the New Brunswick Railroad propose extending it to the Saint Lawrence River. Such a road, properly managed, will give a market at either end for

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agricultural products, and this will have a large influence in the settlement of the vast forests along the line, and by far the most fertile lands in the province.

Cattle exports.—The increasing interest of the farmers in the improvement of their cattle, horses, and sheep still continues. At the provincial exhibition held in this city in October last the show of young horses and Jersey cattle was particularly fine. The fact that fine beef-cattle can be raised at a comparatively small cost by feeding them on roots, for which this country is well adapted, is developing a greater interest in the breeding of short-horns or beef-cattle for the English market. Many of these cattle, fattened on turnips and other roots, have already been shipped to England with good profits to the shipper. But, to make this business a success, a regular line of steamers is much wanted from this port, and it is hoped in a very short time such a line will be established.

Emigration to the United States.—Emigration from this province to the United States continues. From estimates carefully made up I think the number for the year will reach 20,000, one-third at least of whom were residents of this port or vicinity. Many of the adults were mechanics, but most of them were laborers. All are strong, healthy people.

The exodus from this city has been so large that the butchers and marketmen feel it and complain.

D. B. WARNER,
Consul.

U. S. CONSULATE,
Saint John, N. B., November 22, 1880.

SHERBROOKE AS A RAILWAY CENTER.

REPORT OF COMMERCIAL AGENT LAWRENCE.

I have the honor to transmit herewith some particulars in regard to the railways centering here, which may be of interest, not only as showing this to be pre-eminently the distributing point for the eastern townships, but also the place where the supplies of lumber, bark, railway ties, telegraph poles, hay, &c., so extensively shipped to the New England States, are most easily collected and forwarded to their final destination.

Of the Grand Trunk, which passes through and the Passumpsic, and which has its northern terminus here, I will say nothing, as its routes and connections may be seen by referring to any of the published maps; but will confine myself to the new roads, the Quebec Central and the Saint Francis and Megantic International, which, so far as I am aware, are not correctly laid down on the maps which take notice of their existence.

The Quebec Central, formerly the Southeastern Townships and Kennebec, was incorporated by special act of the legislature in 1869, and was completed to its junction with the Levis and Kennebec near Saint Joseph's in October last, and the first train has passed over its route from Sherbrooke to Point Levis, opposite Quebec. Regular trains now run to a distance of 50 miles from Sherbrooke, and in April, 1881, and thereafter, will run through to Quebec.

For the first forty miles of the way the line runs through a settled farming country, comprising the townships of Ascot, Westbury, Stoke, Dudswell, and Weedon; the next thirty miles through an almost un-

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broken forest, and the latter portion of the way, after the valley of the Chaudière is reached, through a remarkably fine farming country, which has been settled for one hundred and fifty years, but where the methods of farming, the implements used, and the habits of the people have changed little, if any, during that time. In this valley are situated the Chaudière gold mines, of great richness and promise, and this road is the most direct approach to them.

To railroad men and manufacturers in the United States this railway is mainly of interest as opening up almost inexhaustible supplies of railway ties, telegraph poles, lumber, pulp timber, and hemlock bark, all of which can be bought at lower prices than on the older roads, and may be sent to market without great increase of freight charges.

The mineral resources of the region thus opened up are varied and abundant. Copper mines exist in many places, from some of which are shown specimens said to assay 40 per cent. pure copper. In the township of Leeds an iron mine has been worked for some time, and magnetic iron ore of great richness has been discovered in other places. At Dudswell, limestone is found in inexhaustible quantities, and lime has been exported to the United States for some years. A branch line runs to the kilns, from which the lime is transferred directly to the cars, while tramways above bring the rock to the mouth of the pits. Marble of beautiful varieties, from pure white to almost black, exists at Marbleton, but has not as yet been brought into requisition for building or other purposes. Granite and slate can be procured at many points, and the latter is now being quarried for the sidewalks of this city. Asbestos is found in several places, and the shipments to the United States already amount to over 500 tons.

From the foregoing it will be seen that the Quebec Central Railway will bring to the markets of the United States and Canada immense quantities of useful and necessary articles which have hitherto been too far from railways to render their purchase profitable on account of the cost of transportation. To the tourist it will furnish a new and interesting route to Quebec and the Saguenay, including a trip through a portion of the valley of the Chaudière, famed for its beauty.

The Saint Francis and Megantic International is completed from Sherbrooke to Lake Megantic, near the Maine border, 69 miles from here, and regular trains now run to that place. This road has its western terminus here, but forms a junction with the Grand Trunk and Passumpsic Railways at Lennoxville, 3 miles above this place, all three roads using the same rails between the two points. It runs for 44 miles, to Scottstown, through a fine settled farming country, and opens up at the farther end splendid timber limits and farming lands, which are being rapidly settled up. Saw-mills have been erected at Bury, Cookshire, Scottstown, and Lake Megantic, the latter being quite extensive, and several parties are thinking of putting up portable mills in the woods.

There are four lumber camps in the Maine limits, within 30 miles of the present terminus of this road, which are now furnished by this route with supplies which were formerly taken in by sleds through the Maine woods, involving a haulage of 90 miles. Large quantities of bark, ties, telegraph poles, lumber, and hay are now shipped over this road, and the quantity will increase as the country becomes more settled.

It is not, however, as a local road that this railway will become of greatest use. It forms a link in a line soon to be constructed which will be of great importance. It is proposed during the next season to commence the extension of the line from Lake Megantic through the heart of the timber country, past Moosehead Lake, to a juncture with the

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European and North American Railway, near Lincoln. Thus extended, it will form, in conjunction with the latter railway and the Grand Trunk, a through line from Montreal to Saint John, New Brunswick, which will be 300 miles shorter than the route by the Intercolonial Railway, and will naturally attract large quantities of western freight, and make Sherbrooke the most important place in a great through route to the seaboard.

It is also proposed to extend the Waterloo and Magog road, at present having its eastern terminus at Magog, at the foot of Memphremagog Lake, 16 miles from here, to Sherbrooke, thus still further shortening the line.

It will thus be seen that Sherbrooke, even with its present roads, is an important collecting and distributing point, and when the contemplated lines are finished, as I think they undoubtedly will be in the near future, it will be a railway center of considerable importance.

H. D. LAWRENCE,
Commercial Agent.

UNITED STATES COMMERCIAL AGENCY,
Sherbrooke, December 22, 1880.

AGRICULTURE AND COMMERCE OF VERA CRUZ.

REPORT BY CONSUL TROWBRIDGE.

AGRICULTURE.

Very little wheat, oats, rye, barley, or hay—really none of the latter—is raised in this consular district. What there is of agricultural enterprise is confined to the cultivation of coffee, cotton, tobacco, corn, sugar cane, beans, vegetables, the raising of cattle, horses, goats, hogs, and sheep, and gathering for exportation such articles as hides, cedar, mahogany, fustic, rubber, esparto grass, and zacaton.

The cultivation of coffee is extending and improving rapidly, giving this district a reputation abroad which benefits it very much. The same can be said of tobacco and zacaton. Both these are new aspirants for popular favor, and already the exportations begin to call attention from their importance. Cotton culture is considered fearfully uncertain from the many enemies and accidents to which it is liable. The culture of sugar cane and manufacture of sugar, molasses, and alcohol from it, for over a year past have had a serious set-back, to a most promising business, by the enforcement of a local toll or discriminating tax, admitted to be unconstitutional, which the necessities of revenue have imposed on this one product.

The cultivation of the India-rubber tree ought to be another new factor of importance in this district, as it is indigenous to the locality and would be profitable in a heavy per centage on small capital invested. It requires about ten years from time of transplanting the young trees to the orchard before they can be tapped, during which ten years they require but little attention or expense. Then the yield for many years is sure, profitable, and inexpensive. But, although many see the chances of the enterprise, yet they seem to distrust the political situation, or such tolls as cane culture now suffers. Hence it is considered an uncertain adventure.

The implements used in agriculture are of the rudest class, such as our

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Biblical forefathers employed, and all efforts to introduce modern inventions have absolutely failed. A hardware house in this city has a sample plow from some establishment in the United States on sale, and it has been so offered for years without a bid for purchase. I doubt if he could give it away on condition that it should be used.

MANUFACTURES.

This branch of employment is confined to two cotton mills, two paper mills, and a large (unknown) number of establishments in which cigars and cigarettes are made. Another large cotton mill or manufactory is being erected at Orizava by Americans and American capital. These cotton mills make a heavy article of "domestic" called manta, which is consumed in the country. The staple is principally brought from the United States to supply these mills. They are quite extensive, giving employment to about 280 to 300 laborers, who gain on an average about $8 per month. Cigarettes are principally made by women, children, cripples, and medicants, who earn at this employment less than 25 cents per day, while the manufacture of cigars gives work to men skilled in the trade or art of making, and at which the workmen can gain about $1 per day. The amount of wages is variable, as wages are paid on the thousand and not by the day or month.

The two paper mills make printing paper, wrapping paper, and an inferior article of writing paper. The profits on domestic paper are very high, owing to the tremendous duties the government puts on the imported article. With this great advantage to back them, the amounts of paper made are very small in proportion to the demand. Labor is cheap and water-power abundant and regular, and with all these the quantity made and the quality of it are not up to the wants of the market and consumption.

COMMERCE.

There were 74 vessels to date for the year which entered and cleared at this port, with a total tonnage of 86,895. All these were American vessels. There were 50 steamers, with a gross registered tonnage of 81,865 tons, with 24 sailing vessels, with 5,030 tons. These vessels have usually had fair cargoes both to and from this country at living rates. Besides these American bottoms, there have been 31 English steamers that have cleared from Vera Cruz for some port in the United States, most of which have taken Mexican produce to our country; also several Mexican sailing vessels have cleared for United States ports with full cargoes. The number of consular invoices exceeds this year, ending October 31, those of any year since 1869, the date of my taking charge of this office, being 872 given in triplicate. These figures show an increase in commercial transactions, and the said increase is clearly attributable to the long period of peace the country has enjoyed, *it being almost three years!* But if a country so long given over to civil strife, with the necessary loss of confidence, can spring forward in commercial pursuits as these figures show this country has, it is clear to predict that, if peace be continued and all the railroad schemes be consummated, the commercial future of Mexico is well worth studying for its intrinsic value, as well as an adjuvant to our artisans and manufacturers at home. But as to our merchants being able to do business in Mexico simply by sending their goods here to hunt for a market without being conducted by persons skilled in the trade and fully informed in all the peculiarities of the Mexican tariff laws—such and success are impossible.

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For months last year I studied the revenue laws and how they were applied, and now, after one year, I only have to confirm what I said in my report for 1879, to which I refer all who contemplate *opening business* in this country.*

AMERICAN GOODS IN MEXICO.

As to the articles manufactured in the United States that are finding a market in this country, it is encouraging to see that they are constantly acquiring an increasing popularity. We will hold the ground we have, and extend the field of occupation if our artisans and manufacturers continue to excel in the superior quality of articles they produce. Our machinery, tools, cutlery, clocks, watches, sewing machines, arms, wooden wares, hardware, brooms, and woven fabrics are justly more popular and more eagerly sought for than the same articles from Europe. Some of these articles are being imitated in Europe, and are finding their way here. The tendency of this nefarious trade is in two ways to depress and injure our good name and intentions: First, by destroying our well-earned reputation by making our manufacturers seem to acknowledge somebody else's illegitimate offspring by forging to worthless articles some well-established name or mark; and, secondly, by ruining the prices and confidence of the consumers, who may not have the means of comparison and distinguishing the genuine from the false. When Europeans resort to such dishonorable practices, they acknowledge thereby their own inferiority, and offer a potent admonition to our citizens not to seek to lower in anything the present standard of their excellence. We cannot compete with them in worthless manufactures, and we ought not to exercise our faculties in that direction.

Many articles, such as flour, canned groceries of all kinds, potatoes, &c., could find a ready and extensive market here if the tariff were not prohibitory. Eight dollars a barrel on flour makes it impossible to import it into Mexico without loss. These high rates on the staple articles of family consumption render living very expensive in a land where it should be the cheapest.

POPULATION.

The census of this canton has just been taken, and, like all south of Mason and Dixon's line, enjoys a rapid increase in numerical strength. Unfortunately, however, I am unable to get the figures of the census count of the city and canton, as they are not yet footed up and published. When the data thus furnished fall into my hands I hope to be able to give some interesting conclusions from them, and to compare them with a return which was made on the same ordered basis, in December, 1869, and constituted the text of a dispatch to the Department, dated December 27, 1869, No. 19, from this office.

MORTALITY.

During the ten years ending September 30, 1880, according to a published table, there were 12,219 deaths in the city of Vera Cruz, averaging 1,222 per year, or 102 per month. In 1877, 1,569 died, while 1879 gave only 903 deaths. These 12,219 deaths were divided, as to sex, as follows: Males, 7,714; females, 4,505. The population of the city was, in 1869, males, 6,084; females, 7,408, a total of 13,492. It is apparent from these figures that ten years constitute near unto a full generation

* See Commercial Relations for 1879, vol. 2, p. 835.

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in this city—only falling short of it 1,273, or one year. The greatest annual mortality was among children of five years and under, but the figures are not given. They also fail to give the death-rate of specific diseases.

The death-rate per 1,000, assuming the population to be 13,492 (which is too small for present dates), for the average (1,222) is 90.5 per annum. With these awful facts before me, I leave it to the common judgment and high ideas that our law-makers have of justice to say whether or not the salary of the consul, who, for eleven years has lived in such an atmosphere, ought to be placed at least back to where it was when he was sent here.

S. T. TROWBRIDGE,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Vera Cruz, October 31, 1880.

TRADE OF CURAÇOA WITH THE UNITED STATES.

REPORT BY VICE-CONSUL LEON.

CURAÇOA.

The time elapsed since I have been attending this consulate in my capacity as vice-consul being so short, it is difficult for me to include a descriptive statement of the articles imported from the United States; nevertheless, I beg to say that in general the trade which has existed between this port and the United States has been, during these last three quarters, a very active one. Large quantities of provisions have been introduced into this market, principally from the port of New York, whence three steamers and four sailing vessels, with an aggregate tonnage of 3,062, maintain a regular trade.

Besides the transactions had on a very large scale in flour, wheat, rye, cornmeal, corn, rice, breadstuff, tobacco, refined sugar, butter, lard, beef, pork, kerosene oil, pitch, and white-pine boards, scantlings, &c., this commerce has been importing manufactures from the United States in preference to others, such as cordage, wire ropes, hardware, plated ware, canvas, furniture, and Appleton's cotton drillings.

These same drillings are also manufactured by other parties in the United States, and even at a cheaper rate, but not adhering to orders according to the exigencies of buyers, Appleton's drillings have had, until now, the preference.

Other articles of merchandise, like white cotton calicoes and colored cotton prints, have been also imported. If these have not been imported in large quantities it has been due to the fact that they are not yet dispatched by manufacturers in the United States in the same style as those from England, where they are prepared in the required length and width and of assorted printings.

No doubt but that in the near future our cotton goods will also obtain the preference which for many years has been given to other articles imported from the United States.

Of the articles exported to the United States as special productions of this island, Bonaire, and Aruba, I note the following: Skins and hides on a very small scale; dividivi, redwood, and bones, salt, hats, aloes, peanuts, guano, cocoanuts, and wood. The remainder of the ex-

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ports to the United States (skins, hides, coffee, and fustic) are brought here in transit from Venezuela and Colombia; sugar and honey from San Domingo.

I have also to report that the salt crop in these last months has been a valuable one; prices now prevailing are from 40 to 50 cents per barrel, measurement equal to 3½ bushels.

DAVID LEON,
Vice-Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Curaçoa, W. I., November 15, 1880.

TRADE BETWEEN CHILI AND THE UNITED STATES.

EXTRACT FROM THE ANNUAL REPORT OF CONSUL FOOTE OF VALPARAISO.

Prior to 1861 the trade of the United States with Chili was largely in excess of what it is at present. At that time a goodly number of American business houses were established here, but by degrees this has been changed. The decrease of American shipping during our civil war had a tendency to check this trade. Our mercantile houses in this country have, from time to time, either changed hands or retired from business, thus virtually abandoning the field, which has been occupied by European houses, whose interest it is to introduce the goods of their respective countries.

In seeking for the causes which militate against the trade of the United States, it must be borne in mind that it has not been the custom of our people to send out and maintain commercial establishments and to invest capital in such enterprises. I think investigation will show that every one of our business houses in the South American States is the result of some small venture, and that when the founders of such enterprises have retired, oftentimes with large fortunes, that the business has either ceased or passed into foreign hands. On the contrary, the English and German houses are accustomed to perpetuate their business by making partners of their clerks after a term of service.

It must also be borne in mind that the jobbing trade of Chili is done, not by native houses, which seek other markets for their supplies, but almost entirely by foreign houses established here, which have their home connections, and whose interests and inclinations prompt them to seek their respective home markets. I will venture the assertion that two-thirds of the American goods now sold in Chili are the importations of English and German houses, and more, that they are only imported to supply an actual demand. Trade promoted under such circumstances is of slow growth. What is needed is the establishment here of American houses with capital, energy, and patience. Advertising has done something in calling attention to our goods; traveling agents have made some sales; but depots near at hand are necessary, where a constant supply can be obtained and where the goods can be brought directly to the attention of purchasers. Of course there should be an intelligent examination of the field, and the necessities of the trade should be carefully studied. A sharp competition must be expected, but there is no reason why with proper facilities our trade with Chili should not be largely augmented.

LUCIUS H. FOOTE, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Valparaiso, November, 1880.

HOW TO INCREASE AMERICAN TRADE IN BRAZIL.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL ADAMSON, OF RIO DE JANEIRO.

AMERICAN AGENTS.

Those of our manufacturers whose operations are sufficiently extensive to warrant some expenditure in still further increasing their business would do well to either establish here an agent of their own, sent from home, or they should visit this market in person and select a resident man or firm of undoubted good character to act for them.

If an agent is sent out from home it is of the first importance that he should know the Portuguese language perfectly, that he should be a thoroughly well trained merchant who knows a bill of exchange from a promissory note, and is conversant with mercantile law and usages in general, and that he should be able to impress dealers with confidence that his promises will be sacredly performed. He should not attempt to import goods until he had carefully studied the peculiarities of the market, the wants of the country, the many peculiar provisions of the tariff, and the rulings of customs officials, as well as the style in which goods should be put up, size of packages, mode of packing, &c. If such a man cannot be found, the next best thing is to find a resident firm possessing these qualifications, and then do business through such firm and such only. For a person who calls himself a merchant to buy such "job lots" of goods as he thinks, without reason for so thinking, should pay a profit in Brazil, and to ship them to irresponsible parties here or to good houses dealing in another class of goods, is to insure heavy loss and to injure trade.

MISTAKES OF TRADE.

It is said that skates have actually been shipped to Bahia, and it is a very common thing for parties at home to address this office on the subject of shipping threshing-machines to Brazil. Lord Timothy Dexter's good luck with warming pans in the West Indies seems to have impressed many people.

Much injury to American trade has been done by some traveling salesmen who took orders for goods which were never sent, because prices subsequently advanced at home. Others have unwisely tried to open a direct business with retailers who have only a very limited number of customers to serve instead of making arrangements with some one house whose constituency numbers five hundred such retailers.

CONFIDENCE OPERATORS.

The gullibility of some of our merchants would be amusing if it were not saddening to see the blunders they make in intrusting their wares to people who have no commercial standing. Adventurers in the United States have published glowing accounts of the magnificent enterprises in which they were engaged here, claiming that their chief desire was the encouragement of trade between the United States and

Brazil. They have sent forth circulars and newspaper articles pretending to show that they were connected with persons of the highest rank both here and at home, and giving fictitious statements of large transactions which they claimed to have effected or to be about to put into execution. In certain cases it is to be feared that really respectable people have unwittingly been made the instruments to assist these deceptions.

POOR PACKING.

In the case of manufacturers whose wares are adapted to this market and pay a fine profit, there is still much to learn. They frequently cause trouble to consignees here and loss to themselves by lack of care in some essential points. Certain kinds of goods almost invariably arrive in bad order through careless packing. Packages should not be too large.

SHIPPING DIRECTIONS.

Greater care should be exercised in describing goods in the invoices, and the name of the goods as given in invoices should correspond with that on manifest, *avoiding technical names*, otherwise all boxes must be opened and emptied at custom-house. For instance, there is a large and growing business here in a certain kind of stamped ironware covered with an agate enamel. Some of these goods have arrived here, being manifested as "stamped ware." The manifest being in English, has to be rendered into Portuguese. The public translator sees the word "stamped," and this he understands to mean "printed," and he translates the manifest, let us say, thus: "Ten cases prints." The customs officials find the manifest not to agree with invoice, which, perhaps says, "ten cases ironware"; and those ten cases must be unpacked to find the prints; whereas if the manifest agreed with invoice a slight examination would be made and the goods would reach the warehouse in good condition.

TARIFF DIFFICULTIES.

There are also many points of the tariff which must be well understood to avoid exorbitant duties. For example, articles composed of two different substances frequently pay on the whole the duty assessed on wares of the material paying highest duty. Take, for example, lamps for burning kerosene having a gilded brass collar and fittings. If imported with the brass work attached they pay duty by weight as gilded brassware, the glass being weighed as brass, and paying a higher duty than glass only.

OPENINGS FOR AMERICAN GOODS.

With proper efforts we should be able to increase our sales to Brazil in several lines of wares or products, already introduced, and to introduce others not yet put on this market.

In my opinion, there is a market here for a greater variety of cotton goods and iron ware, plated ware, glass ware, plantation machinery, paints and various chemical substances, hams, sides of bacon, cheese, beans, dried fruits, and potatoes, and for some, at least, of the small wares in which, hitherto, Germany has undersold us. Even the past errors of shippers will probably result to the advantage of wiser men, for some articles forced on the market at ruinous rates will perhaps find

favor somewhere, and may yet create demand for those goods or modifications of them.

The future of our trade here is hopeful, but our people may as well disabuse their minds of the idea that this is a new Japan just opened to commerce, and that the people of Brazil are particularly anxious to trade with us above all others. There are a great many popular fallacies to be got rid of.

BRAZILIAN WOOL.

Just before the writer of this left home, a speaker at a public meeting in Philadelphia gravely told his audience that the Brazilians were very anxious to buy of us, but that our high tariff on wool compelled them to take their wool to Europe for sale, and when there they supplied their wants in European markets. A similar argument is now being used to induce Congress to lower the duty on Australian wool. In point of fact, commerce is frequently carried on by circuitous routes. First, however, let us note that Brazil has but little wool to sell. She shipped but $70,000 worth last year; less than many a single county in Ohio. If she had wool to sell, the grower is not like a farmer near a great city, who takes the produce of his farm to town, and there supplies himself with groceries and dry goods.

BRAZILIAN TRADE CUSTOMS.

The producer does not take his wool or his coffee to England and there invest the proceeds in supplying his wants. If business were carried on in that way we should sell Brazil nearly all she wants, because we buy 54 per cent. of her coffee. We sell to England, England sells to Brazil, and Brazil sells to us. If we can show to Brazilian merchants that we can undersell England, or give more desirable goods for the money, and if we can put those goods in their ports within a definite short time, then we can have their business. Foreign commerce, like the internal trade of a country, may not only be increased but even created by easy conveyance of way and commodities from one place to another, and this truism should lead us to consider the necessity for regular communication by steam.

STEAM COMMUNICATION WITH THE UNITED STATES.

If our sailing ships will not enable us to build up or even hold on to our foreign commerce, we must accept the inexorable logic of facts, and try steam. Our ship owners need not fear that they will be injured by an increase of steamship lines. Two or three good lines of steamships between the United States and east coast of South America could probably be freighted outward with other goods than the flour, kerosene, and lumber which form the chief cargoes to Brazil of our sailing vessels. For the homeward freights of such lines, steamships under our own flag could not make the situation any worse for sailing vessels than it now is.

During the quarter ended September 30, 1880, 20 British and German steamships took cargoes from this port to the United States, and our own sailing vessels went home in ballast or with light cargoes at low freights to save buying ballast. These British and German steamers belong chiefly to the Lamport & Holt line, of Liverpool. They can fill more steamships with cargoes from England and Belgium to this country than they can provide cargo for in the opposite direction, but if they

can place those vessels at New York, Baltimore, or New Orleans, they can get freights to England of grain, tobacco, cotton, &c. To help pay expenses on voyage to the United States they take freights at very low rates, if the competition requires it. Coffee has been shipped to New York by the Lamport & Holt steamers at as low as 20 cents a bag. Under any circumstances the steamship has the preference of freight over the sailing vessels. This competition bears very hardly on the American line, *and in no wise serves our interests, as the rival steamers never come back to Brazil direct from the United States, and it is the voyages from our ports to Brazil which best advance the interest of our commerce.*

The profitable business which these foreign steamships obtain from the United States to England and thence to Brazil enable them to bear an unprofitable voyage hence to the United States, which voyage, however, they are not compelled to make, if good business offers elsewhere.

The regular communication by steam from New York to Brazil which we have enjoyed for over two years has had a beneficial effect on our trade with this country; but we have not reaped the full measure of possible benefit, because there has been a constant doubt in the minds of merchants as to the continuance of the line—a feeling which was increased by the fact that the Brazilian Parliament refused for some time to confirm the contract made by the government for the payment of a subsidy unless Maranham was included in the ports of call, said port not being a safe one for vessels the size of these steamers. It is only within a few days that Parliament consented to waive the call at Maranham.

In view of all the facts, it appears to many who are interested in the promotion of our commercial interests with Brazil that our own country might wisely pay a sum for conveyance of mails which would assist to render permanent the present line or a modification thereof.

In the opinion of the writer, it would be well to have smaller vessels than those now performing the service, and to have two lines, one of which should terminate its voyages at Pará, the other to make its first arrival in Brazil at Pernambuco, and to enter the inner harbor of that port, where a valuable trade might thus be secured.

THOMAS ADAMSON,
Consul General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Rio de Janeiro, November 23, 1880.

TRADE OF RIO DE JANEIRO WITH THE UNITED STATES.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL ADAMSON, OF RIO DE JANEIRO.

EXPORTS FROM RIO DE JANEIRO TO THE UNITED STATES.

On this point the consular invoice book enables me to bring down to one year later than is given in Brazilian Government statistics, but the values, as per sworn invoices, do not coincide with those given in custom-house report, for reasons already herein stated.

The following statement, made up from invoices verified at the con-

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sulate, shows comparison of values of exports from Rio de Janeiro to the United States during the years ended June 30, 1880:

Articles exported.	1878–'79.	1879–'80.
Coffee	$30,061,702 48	$32,336,639 37
Sugar	2,717 42	149,900 31
Old iron	.....	60,293 92
Rosewood	.....	46,282 21
Ipecacuanha	13,270 17	19,025 63
Hides	.....	9,648 19
Diamonds	.....	2,897 35
Tapioca	410 99	1,443 98
Sundry Brazil products, personal effects, &c	4,990 83	1,367 17
Goods of American manufacture re-exported	557 96	11,850 05
Total	30,083,709 85	32,639,548 18

IMPORTS OF THE PORT OF RIO DE JANEIRO.

The custom-house statistics, given *in extenso* in the herewith inclosed tables, show the total value of imports from foreign countries at this port during the year ended June 30, 1879, to have amounted to $39,142,610.64, and said imports were received from the various countries as follows:

From Great Britain	$15,107,065 08
From France	7,303,479 56
From Germany	3,480,049 09
From United States	3,218,272 30
From Portugal	2,474,211 94
From Belgium	2,249,600 52
From all others	5,309,932 15
Total	39,142,610 64

The following list of principal articles of import, with their respective values, shows what this market bought of foreign countries in the year 1878–'79:

Cotton goods	$8,226,047 83
Meats, fish, lard, butter, &c	4,170,899 09
Woolen goods	3,159,942 26
Liquors, &c	3,092,420 47
Flour, grain, &c	2,787,580 60
Gold and silver, and manufactures of	2,383,356 04
Coal, stone, earth, &c	1,604,459 11
Linen goods	1,414,769 02
Iron, steel, and ironmongery	1,316,161 74
Hides, pelts, &c	1,285,509 49
Petroleum, paints, varnish, &c	1,274,479 18
Machinery	1,120,437 63
Tea, herbs, plants, &c	1,032,642 66
Chemicals, patent medicines	838,405 25
Paper and manufactures of	679,234 61
Silk and silk goods	633,337 75

IMPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES AT RIO DE JANEIRO.

Of the imports furnished by the United States, the chief articles are flour, kerosene, lard, lumber, hardware or ironmongery, machinery and agricultural implements, tea, glassware, paper, rosin, beer, clocks and watches, ice, leather, canvas, cordage, coal, and boots and shoes.

Flour.—The total entries of wheat flour at Rio de Janeiro during the year ended September 30, 1880, were 374,319 barrels, of which 296,842 barrels came from the United States.

In the year ended September 30, 1879, the total entries were 453,734 barrels, of which 394,954 barrels were from the United States, showing a decrease in our flour trade with this port of 98,112 barrels.* This may partly be explained by the fact that the drought which so long desolated large portions of the northeastern provinces has ceased, and the consequent increased production of mandioca gives the people a favorite and cheap substitute for flour.

During the year ending December 31, 1879, there were received at this port from the United States 204,020 cases of kerosene, 3,580 cases of turpentine, 98,731 kegs, 1,278 cases and 2,950 pails of lard, 2,049 cases and 657 firkins butter, 162 cases cheese, 91 packages hams, 526 drums and 1,793 cases codfish, 1,000 bags beans, 16,852,435 feet lumber, 45,086 kilos tea, 225 kegs nails, 191 cases and 251 bales writing and printing papers, 6,551 barrels rosin, 2,229 barrels beer, 2,500 tons ice, 556 tons coal, 600 coils of cordage, 23 cases boots and shoes, and sundry other articles, the quantities and values of which are not obtainable, the absence of information in regard to which being much regretted, as it might serve to show the acceptance which our wares find in this market.

Cotton goods.—The demand for American cotton goods appears to be slowly but steadily increasing, as the superiority of our cloths becomes daily more apparent. There is a lack of uniformity in the data covered by obtainable returns which embarrasses the compiler of statistics, but it may be roughly stated that this port received from the United States in 1879 cotton goods to the value of $240,000.

Machinery.—The importations of American machines, agricultural implements, utensils of iron, and general hardware increase steadily, and promise to become very important. Already quite a considerable business is done in American locomotive and stationary engines, car wheels, stoves, enameled or agate ironware, corn shellers, portable mills, plows, wire fencing, axes, case-knives, cutlery, locks, and various household utensils.

Clocks and watches of American manufacture are taking possession of the market, and their excellence causes them to be highly appreciated.

Patent medicines and perfumery.—Our preparations of these articles have grown steadily in favor, and the names of Ayer, Bristol, Jayne, Radway, and Lanman & Kemp are household words throughout Brazil.

THOMAS ADAMSON,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Rio de Janeiro, November 23, 1880.

TRADE OF SANTOS WITH THE UNITED STATES.

REPORT BY CONSUL WRIGHT.

Circular July 1 was received September 30. I will endeavor to carry out the wishes therein expressed to the best of my ability.

A regular line of steamers from New York or Baltimore to this place, touching at one or more of the northern ports, including Rio, out and home, would enable me to transmit reports showing an increasing import trade from our country, but such, it appears, we cannot have, but must

* If the decrease in the general imports of flour (one-sixth of the whole) is taken into consideration, the decrease in the imports of American flour (one-fourth of the whole) is relatively much less than that given by the consul-general.

be left to occasional sailing vessels and costly transshipment from Rio. Our imports from the United States cannot increase much until such steam communication shall have been established, and this, in my opinion, cannot be done without a subsidy from government. And yet these very chambers of commerce, or the majority of them, so anxious for an increased trade with Brazil, are doubtless opposed to the very means for securing it, viz, a subsidy to a line of steamers, just as they oppose an imposition of an import duty of 3 cents per pound upon coffee, preferring to pay that much more to the producers than there is any necessity for.

The age of sailing vessels is nearly past. Steamers must, and will, take their places. We, assuredly, holding as we do so high a position among the nations in all that appertains to material and social progress, ought not to stand watching the progress of others in this most important matter of ocean steamships. There are a number of lines of steamers running from Europe to the Brazil coast, from Liverpool, London, Southampton, Hamburg, Antwerp, Havre, Bremen, Marseilles, and Genoa. Here there is scarcely a day without one large foreign steamer, often four or five, in port discharging and loading cargo. The foreign steamers cleared outwards at this port from October 1, 1879, to end of September last numbered 154, with an aggregate tonnage of 214,381 tons, leaving 1,761 tons in port. The total number of vessels and steamers cleared outwards was 517, with a total tonnage of 353,473 tons, including 197 Brazilian vessels and steamers, of 84,025 tons, in the coastwise trade.

As regards direct imports from the United States, such have been confined to flour, kerosene, and lumber, the vessels to bring which being chartered for the purpose, and not permitted to receive goods from other parties. With a regular line of steamers, merchants and manufacturers would be placed in a far more independent position in being enabled to ship when they liked. Our hams and cheese are imported from Europe and sold here as European. I believe that a growing and eventually considerable import trade from the United States can be done here in hams, cheese, butter, lard, furniture, glassware, manufactured goods of cotton and wool, sewing-cotton and thread, &c., baize, tin, wooden and hollow ware, India rubber, and table and floor oilcloths, stoves, spades, shovels, pitchforks, rakes, hoes, &c., corn-shellers, plows, and cultivators, and many other articles. No wheat, oat, or rye threshers are required in this or neighboring provinces.

WILLIAM T. WRIGHT,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Santos, October 11, 1880.

COFFEE TRADE OF SANTOS.

REPORT BY CONSUL WRIGHT ON THE NAVIGATION AND COFFEE EXPORTS OF SANTOS.

Herewith inclosed please find statements showing the navigation and exports of Santos for the year ending September 30, 1880.

You will observe from the statement on navigation, that during the period under review, there were entered at this port 517 steamers and sailing vessels, with an aggregate tonnage of 353,473 tons, leaving in port 16 steamers and sailing vessels, with a total tonnage of 7,875 tons,

against 457 steamers and sailers of 322,108 tons for 1879, at which time 19 sailers and four steamers, of 11,128 tons, were left in port.

Of the steamers entered to September 30, 1880, there were 65 British, of 90,389 tons; 55 German, of 82,520 tons; 21 French, of 27,004 tons; 3 Italian, of 2,297 tons; 10 Belgian (British owned), of 12,171 tons; or, in all, 154 foreign steamers, of 214,381 tons, as against 148, of 202,359 tons, during the previous year.

During the year there were entered and cleared 10 American sailers, of 3,719 tons, against 6 the year previous of 2,026 tons.

The increase of tonnage of sailers may be accounted for to some considerable extent by the increased demands for coal and materials for railroads.

During the year under review the total exports amounted to $18,637,100, against $16,541,815 during the previous year, and not including coastwise shipments of fruits, yams, meats, &c., showing an increase of $2,095,285.

Coffee is the principal article of export, and shows as follows: Total for the year ending September 30, 1880, 142,052,458 pounds, valued at $18,600,460.89; total for previous year, 146,892,422 pounds, valued at $16,515,000; showing a decrease in quantity of 4,839,964 pounds, but an increase in value of $2,085,460.89.

The comparative exports of coffee to the United States were, year ending September 30, 1880, 32,947,580 pounds, valued at $4,315,272.55; previous year, 24,651,873 pounds, valued at $2,771,000; increase, 8,295,707 pounds, valued at $1,544,272.55.

I regret my inability to forward you a statement of imports, as the custom-house books are generally behindhand, and it would take me a month at least to copy the manifests.

The price of coffee has lately declined here about 2 cents per pound, as compared with those ruling two months ago.

WILLIAM T. WRIGHT,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Santos, October 13, 1880.

Statement showing the navigation at the port of Santos for the year ending September 30, 1880.

Flag.	ENTERED.						CLEARED.					
	Steamers.		Sailing vessels.		Total.		Steamers.		Sailing vessels.		Total.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
British	65	90,389	61	20,880	126	111,269	65	90,389	67	21,543	132	111,932
German	55	82,520	26	8,797	81	91,317	56	84,553	25	7,185	81	91,738
French	21	27,004	6	1,712	27	28,716	22	28,731	6	1,712	28	30,443
Norwegian			19	5,836	19	5,836			17	5,345	17	5,345
Italian	3	2,297	10	3,977	13	6,274	3	2,297	9	3,679	12	5,976
Swedish			9	3,063	9	3,063			9	3,063	9	3,063
Danish			3	572	3	572			3	572	3	572
Belgian	10	12,171			10	12,171	10	12,171			10	12,171
American			16	3,719	10	3,719			10	3,719	10	3,719
Dutch			4	877	4	877			4	877	4	877
Spanish			2	444	2	444			2	444	2	444
Portuguese			13	3,803	13	3,803			13	3,803	13	3,803
Austrian			2	865	2	865			2	865	2	865
Argentine			1	522	1	522			1	522	1	522
Brazilian	124	76,753	73	7,272	197	84,025	124	76,086	71	6,898	195	82,984
					517	353,473					519	354,454

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Statement showing the exports from Santos for the year ending September 30, 1880.

Articles.	Quantity.	Value, including costs and charges.	Whither exported.
Coffee ..... kilos..	45, 513, 780	$13, 145, 896 80	North of Europe.
Do ..... do....	2, 609, 580	753, 733 70	South of Europe.
Do ..... do....	14, 935, 440	4, 315, 272 55	United States.
Do ..... do....	1, 334, 880	385, 557 84	Coastwise.
Old iron rails ..... tons..	493. 77	8, 458 20	United States.
Ox and cow hides (salted) ..... number..	273, 165	26, 425 44	Europe.
Ox and cow hides (dry) ..... do....	3, 378	648 10	Do.
Ox and cow horns ..... do....	40, 537	972 89	Do.
Bones ..... kilos..	7, 000	134 40	Do.

Also a quantity of provisions, fruits, &c., to ports on the coast, the exact amount of which as to quantity and value cannot be ascertained.

CONTINENT OF ASIA.

TO THE DAIRYMEN OF THE UNITED STATES.

REPORT BY CONSUL MOREY, OF CEYLON.

Adverting to the Department circular of July 1, 1880, I deem it advisable to call attention to the following cutting, which a local editor has extracted from an English newspaper and reproduced in his own. The article you will see alludes to a family in England said to have been poisoned from partaking of American corned beef put up in tin.

DEATH IN THE POT.—We read of another death in London from eating meat tinned in the United States, where it is evident a very improper kind of package is used. A home paper says: "Another death has just happened through tinned meat, the victim being a girl ten years old. The deceased was sent out by her parents one day to purchase a quarter of a pound of 'corned beef'—not the native article, but the stuff which comes over from America, in large tins, and is sold retail at provision shops in poor neighborhoods. All the family became seriously unwell after partaking of this delectable delicacy, but the only one to succumb was the little girl in question. At the *post mortem* inquiry, medical evidence proved that the cause of death was some irritant poison, and on the contents of the stomach being submitted to analysis, it came out that a portion of the tin had been absorbed into the meat, with the ultimate result of producing a deadly poison, called hydrochloride of zinc."*

Now, as American canned provisions are finding a large place in the dietary economy of the people in this part of the world, and as the continuance of this growing trade should not be jeopardzied through hostile journals being given opportunities of commenting on the deleterious character of such goods, denying their wholesomeness, it behooves our manufacturers and exporters to avail themselves of all the scientific information they can obtain, especially with respect to the packing of salted provisions in tin.

* NOTE BY THE DEPARTMENT OF STATE.—There is an indefiniteness about the above extract which would lead to the inference that "Death in the Pot" was concocted in the sanctum of the Ceylon paper. "We read of another death in London," and "A home paper says," are as suggestive of a "built-up" case to create prejudice against American canned meats as were the "trichina analyses" of the German "chemists" of a few years back. Had "death in the pot" occurred, as reported in the above extract, it is more than likely that our vigilant consular corps in England would have informed the Department thereof; therefore, until the case is positively proven, the Department has no hesitation in denouncing "Death in the Pot" as a "trick of trade" having no foundation in fact.

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Tin plate being an article which, however well manufactured, is extremely liable to corrosion from contact with salt, said corrosion producing an alkali not only offensive to the palate but in a high degree poisonous, the fact is obvious that unless great care and even skill are exercised in bringing these antagonistic substances together, especially in combination with canned matter confined in packages liable to many and various climatic influences for an indefinite period, there might be cases of poisoning such as this paragraph alludes to.

My attention is more strongly drawn towards this subject from the fact that latterly there was an importation of butter here direct from the United States which was largely advertised to be offered on arrival at a price which if the article were good would insure a rapid sale. Unfortunately it proved to be salted butter in tins, and the condition was not excellent; not, in my opinion, from any fault in the butter itself, which in color and consistency appeared to me quite perfect, but from a strong alkaline flavor pervading the mass, rendering slightly offensive that which otherwise might have been pure and wholesome food.

I have satisfied myself that the whole mistake about this butter was, first, in salting it at all; secondly, in the use of impure salt, say that which had not been completely cleansed of the several sulphates and oxides which ordinary culinary salt is known to contain; thirdly, that the tin cans were of an inferior quality of tin plate, which therefore lent its impurities all the more readily to the corrosive action of the not very pure salt.*

Some people here will not accept this theory, but believe that the butter was of poor quality when packed. I think differently, and regret this circumstance, which must in a measure bring American butter into discredit in a place where I have often extolled its purity and goodness, and where it unquestionably may find a profitable market if exhibited to the consumers in anything like its native excellence; and I would advise our producers and packers who propose preparing canned goods for export to employ as little salt as possible, and to be sure that whatever of that article is used is pure; also to make their cans of the very best tin plate and solder that are manufactured.

I inclose duplicate samples of the tin containing the American butter aforesaid; also samples cut from a Danish butter-tin—the difference in quality being very noticeable; and would add that whereas the Danish butter sells rapidily at 65 cents per pound, the American sells slowly at 45 cents per pound. The American tin is marked A and the Danish D.

The French are sending to the East large quantities of Normandy butter, in one and two pound bottles, with mouths about 2 inches diameter, glass stoppered, and secured with hard, white cement, so as to be perfectly air-tight. The butter is fresh; but after being packed about one tablespoonful of white pearly salt, almost impalpably fine, and exquisitely pure, is put into the neck of the bottle, and the stopper applied. This butter retails almost unlimitedly at 65 cents gold per one-pound bottle, and 55 cents per pound in two-pound bottles. As our country has now become famous for its excellent glass, and there can be no question about the conservation of butter in vessels formed of that material, I see no reason why our exporters should not only imitate the French in using it for packing butter, but for cheese also, thereby se-

* In connection with this question of impure salt, reference is here made to a report thereon in the January number of these publications, p. 57.

curing preservation, and a never-failing market for those commodities in this oriental hemisphere.

WILLIAM MOREY,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Colombo, Ceylon, December 10, 1880.

COMMERCE OF THE DUTCH EAST INDIES.*

REPORT, BY CONSUL ECKSTEIN, OF AMSTERDAM, ON THE COMMERCE OF THE DUTCH EAST INDIES AND THE SHARE OF THE UNITED STATES THEREIN.

A letter from Mr. Hatfield, United States consul at Batavia, published in the October edition of the Exporter, of New York, commenced by stating: "Like many other markets in the far East, ours is quite in the hands of foreigners, *i. e.*, English, Dutch, and German, who supply nearly everything required."

This remark of the consul confirmed my conjectures on this subject in respect to the trade in the Dutch East India colonies.

Being well acquainted with several parties here who have an intimate knowledge of everything relating to the markets and the general commerce in that part of the world, I concluded to avail myself of that opportunity by making an effort to obtain some information bearing upon the matter, and with a view of benefiting American manufacturers and producers, if possible. The result of my labor is partially summed up in this report.

To enable me to show the extent and importance of the commerce of Netherlandish India, I obtained from the minister of the colonies a statement of the imports and exports of merchandise and specie for the year 1878, which, as I understand, contains the latest information obtainable on the subject. The following is a translation of the statement referred to:

Value of the general imports and exports of Netherlandish India during the year 1878.

A.—MERCHANDISE.

On account of—	Imports.	Exports.	Imports from the United States.	Exports to the United States.
	Florins.	*Florins.*	*Florins.*	*Florins.*
Private individuals	103, 391, 089	134, 200, 112	3, 940, 669	11, 815, 232
The government	12, 579, 565	38, 290, 204	89, 795	.....
Total	115, 970, 654	172, 490, 316	4, 030, 464	11, 815, 232
In United States currency	$46, 388, 261	$68, 996, 126	$1, 612, 185	$4, 726, 093

B.—SPECIE.

	Florins.	*Florins.*	
Private individuals	14, 478, 725	7, 477, 305	No specie was imported from or exported to America.
The government	10, 000, 000	.....	
Total	24, 478, 725	7, 477, 305	
In United States currency	$9, 791, 490	$2, 990, 922	

* Florin = $0.40.2. The consul has, however, estimated the florin at 40 cents in reducing his amounts to dollars.

* This report on the "Commerce of the Dutch East Indies" is particularly valuable, as being the first ever received at the Department upon the subject from any of our consular officers, although it seems strange that it should come from Amsterdam instead of from the offices in the colonies.

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The imports by and on account of the government consisted of supplies and stores for the army, navy, and civil service, and the exports chiefly of coffee grown upon government land—by compulsory but regularly paid labor of natives—tin from the mines on Banca Island, which mines are the property of the government, and are worked by it and on its account, and cinchona.

A striking feature in the foregoing tabular statement appears to be the comparatively small amount representing the imports from the United States; and it would seem that the present great manufacturing and producing facilities of our country would justify expectations of its capability to make a far better showing.

It will also be observed that the commerce of those colonies is quite important, as is shown by the foregoing figures, and it has, besides, since 1878, very considerably increased. That such is the case seems but natural when considering that the population of the colonies is estimated to amount at least to 30,000,000 souls, including many thousands of Europeans, and that the country produces, in such large quantities for export, such valuable articles as coffee, tobacco, sugar, rice, tin, indigo, pepper, &c.

The trade there is almost exclusively in the hands of Europeans, the English, Dutch, and Germans. Of the Europeans conducting business there rarely any ever remain in the country longer than from ten to fifteen years. There are various causes accounting for that, chief among which it appears that the character of the climate has a more or less injurious effect upon their health. On their return to Europe they usually leave the management of their business in the hands of junior members of their firms, or in the hands of trusty employés, giving them an interest in the business, and who are, as a rule, younger men and more recently arrived in the country. On coming back to Europe these merchants usually domicile themselves, the Dutch at Amsterdam and Rotterdam, the English at London, and the Germans at Hamburg and Bremen. In most cases they establish offices in these cities and continue to transact business connected with their houses in the colonies, and more especially for the purpose of attending to the purchasing and shipping of merchandise.

It will therefore be observed that American manufacturers and exporters, in any effort to establish or extend their trade in the Dutch East India colonies, might well take cognizance of the above-recited facts.

The trade in cotton fabrics of every description especially deserves to attract their attention, as it is said to be very large, and as up to the present time there seems not to have been any energetic endeavor put forth to compete for it by Americans. The great bulk of such goods, or nearly all that goes to supply the wants of plantation hands, laboring and mechanic classes, and the common natives generally, is, as a rule, of a poor quality.

What is principally wanted and sells readiest in plain white cotton goods, such as shirtings, muslins, cambrics, jaconets, lawns, &c., is a smooth, glossy surface, no matter of what consistency or how produced. The intrinsic quality or strength of the goods seems not to be of much importance, but the finish and particularly the cost of them are primary considerations. Colored cotton goods, plain and figured, are almost invariably preferred if the colors are very bright or flashy, and the figures gaudy and attractive.

American cottons of better qualities and styles, but correspondingly higher in price, have as yet hardly commenced to be introduced in the country. But, from what I learn, it seems quite possible that a large

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market for such goods might be opened up there if small quantities of different kinds were first sent out, consigned to first-class houses at Samarang, Batavia, and Soerabaya, to be sold on commission. There are, I am informed, responsible firms there which would be willing to receive them and use their best endeavors in the introduction and sale of them. But in this case the shipper of the goods would have to be prepared that in the beginning sales would be unimportant, and profits, if any, small.

Up to the present time petroleum is about the only article which is imported into the "colonies" from the United States, in large quantities. There is said to be a promising field there for large commercial operations with the United States, but to realize them it would seem to be an indispensable condition for some first-class American houses to establish branch houses at some of the principal cities, or, in lieu thereof, to send competent agents there, provided with proper credentials. A thorough investigation by such agents on the spot upon the subject in all its bearings would be likely to result, I am assured, in a very great increase in the import trade with the United States.

D. ECKSTEIN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Amsterdam, December 6, 1880.

JAPAN AND THE JAPANESE.

A REPORT, BY CONSUL-GENERAL VAN BUREN, OF HIS VISIT TO HIOGO, OSAKA KIOTO, GIFU, AND NOGOYA.

THE CITY OF HIOGO.

I left Yokohama on October 20, and visited Hiogo.

Paper mill.—After visiting and making a thorough inspection of the paper mill at that place, owned by the American merchants, Messrs. Walsh, Hall & Co., doing business at Yokohama and Kobé, which I found most interesting and flourishing, a description of which, I learn, General Stahel has forwarded,* I proceeded to Osaka. Having been furnished with letters by the Japanese ministers of foreign affairs and of the home department, I received from the Governor of Osaka Fu, the most polite attentions, and was furnished by him with an intelligent interpreter, by whose aid I visited the different manufactories and warehouses of this, the wealthiest and most active city of the empire.

MANUFACTORIES AND WAREHOUSES OF OSAKA.

The imperial mint.—The imperial mint, situated here, is in a very flourishing condition. I was received at this institution, with my friends, by the accomplished commissioner, who, together with his able assistants, Messrs. MacLagan and Gowland, conducted us over the works, pointing out and explaining every process, and furnished me with the fullest information concerning the operations being carried on. They also exhibited to us a magnificent collection of Japanese and Chinese coins, old and new, and obligingly permitted me to purchase a case of the newer coins tastefuliy arranged in a suitable case for inspection, at cost price.

* Published in this number of consular reports.

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Coinage.—During the year ending June 30, 1879, there were coined 92,073 gold pieces, of the respective denominations of 20, 10, 5, 2, and 1 yen, to the value of $460,365; of silver pieces 5,008,241, consisting of yen trade dollars, 50, 20, 10, and 5 sen pieces, of the value of $2,076,954.95; of copper, 83,323,809 pieces, of denominations of 2, 1 and ½ sen, and 1 rin, value $3,434,556.29; total 88,424,123 pieces, of the value of $5,971,876.24.

The total value of coins struck at the mint, from the commencement up to the 30th of June, 1879, is $86,279,113.42. During the year referred to, 89 ingots of refined gold have been supplied from the mint to the imperial government—the whole number supplied during the working of the institution being 390, and 10 of refined silver, aggregating in value about 4,049,715 yen.

The number of medals manufactured during the year, of silver, copper, and German silver, was 7,302.

Employés.—The number of men employed in the mint, aside from the two English gentlemen I have named, is:

Officers and subofficers	116
Workmen and servants	489
Total	605

The total receipts and expenditures of the mint up to June 30, 1879, are represented to be as follows:

RECEIPTS.

Mint proper	$6,541,956.219
Refining	377,672.261
Sulphuric-acid works	489,755.089
Total	7,409,383.569

EXPENDITURES.

Mint proper	$3,289,780.115
Refining	260,490.020
Sulphuric-acid works	342,846.474
Total	3,893,116.609

Machinery.—The machinery used is French, German, and English. Some of the scales in use, with most exquisite balances, were made at the mint.

The arsenal and castle.—We were also shown over the arsenal and the old Osaka castle, the latter dating from 1582. The former was constructed in 1870, and employs between 1,100 and 1,200 workmen. A very large and commodious brick building is now in process of erection for the casting of heavy guns. During our visit, the principal work being done was the manufacture of cartridges for the Snyder rifles.

The ruins of the old castle are exceedingly picturesque, and from the parapets of the walls left standing, extensive and interesting views are obtained of the city and its surroundings. A small garrison is in charge under the command of a most accomplished and courteous officer, who showed us every attention. This castle, built, as I have said, in 1582, by Taytomi Hideyashi, upon a site formerly occupied by a Buddhist temple, was of enormous size, extending a mile and a quarter each way and surrounded by rivers running in different directions. In 1596 Hideyashi died, and some sixteen years afterwards his son, Hideyori, was compelled by Tokukawa Iyeyaru, who obtained the Shogunati, to destroy the walls and fill up the moats.

The existing buildings are merely the central parts, and are about 2½

miles in circumference. In 1614 another quarrel broke out between Tokukawa and Hideyori, and the latter was completely defeated, and the castle was thenceforth placed in charge of one of the princes designated by the Shogun.

In the revolution of 1868, Tokugawa Yoshinori, then in command, feeling himself unable to successfully defend the castle, set fire to it and retreated to Tokio.

As against all assaults with any other than large artillery, it would appear from examination to have been impregnable. Some of the blocks of granite of which the walls and bastions are composed, measure from 20 to 42 feet in length, by 15 to 20 in width, and 6 or 8 in thickness. It is not clear where these stones were quarried or how brought and placed in their present elevated positions, although the site of the castle and the surrounding country is called "Ichiyama," rocky or stony mountain, and it is possible the material was quarried on the spot. Placing these enormous blocks in position, however, must have been a herculean task.

Cotton-thread manufactory.—We also examined with much interest the extensive and admirably conducted cotton-thread manufactory, belonging to a Japanese gentleman, who appears to be thoroughly in earnest in his undertaking. A more particular reference will be made to this establishment in my report on cotton.

Indigo factory.—We also visited the large indigo manufactory, of which a well-known native gentleman is proprietor. The plant is native grown, but is inferior to that of China and other countries. The methods of manufacture are crude, no attempt being made to use modern machinery.

Trade and commerce of Osaka.—Osaka is situated on both sides of the river Yodo-gowa, near its mouth. The bay which receives its waters, named after the city, is one of the numerous harbors which border the island of Niphon on its eastern coast. Two great canals run through the city, intersected by eight smaller ones, all of which are the busy scenes of commerce and trade. There are about 100,000 dwelling-houses, and some 400,000 inhabitants. Osaka is the greatest center of wealth and business in Japan. Most of the products of the western and a portion of the northern provinces are sent there and distributed to other parts of the country. The chief articles of domestic trade are rice, sugar, tea, and silk.

Ship-building.—Some thirty steamers run between Osaka and Kobé (Hiogo). Ship or junk building is a very large and profitable branch of industry in this busy town. Several steamers were on the stocks during our visit, and a great number of junks, large and small. I saw one of the latter in process of construction, with a carrying capacity of 200 tons, which the builder informed me would cost only 500 yen.

Country between Osaka and Hiogo.—The country between Osaka and Hiogo is an extensive alluvial valley, plentifully watered, and, when we passed through, it was waving with a vast harvest of rice and other cereals. The same may be said of much of the region between Osaka and Kioto, and the latter place and Otsu on Lake Biwa.

KIOTO—ITS INDUSTRIES AND INSTITUTIONS

Kioto, our next stopping place after leaving Osaka, was, for over a thousand years and until the revolution of 1868, the residence of the Mikado, and the religious capital of the empire. So much has been published concerning this city and its surroundings that I shall not

lengthen this dispatch by any description of its situation, its history, or its temples and palaces.

Silk industry.—Its principal industries, the manufacture of silk and silk brocades, and its embroideries, we studied with the greatest interest. Some of the silk productions are exceedingly rich and elegant, and are considered the finest in Japan.

Embroideries.—The embroideries are perhaps too well known to require more than mere mention. The impression that this art, and that of making lacquer-work, is declining in Japan, which seems to prevail abroad, is an error. No more exquisite work in these branches has ever been known than is being produced every day. In fact, I am inclined to believe that in embroidery the productions are improving in beauty of design and perfect finish of execution, while in lacquer, if the value of the time and labor required be guaranteed, pieces are prepared that are not excelled by any thing of the past.

The dancing girls of Kioto.—Among other institutions of which we were afforded an opportunity of examination in Kioto were the schools for geishas (dancing girls). The very large number of singing and dancing girls in this ancient city is a wonder, even to Japanese. As near as I could ascertain there are upwards of 2,000 among a population of about 290,000. These girls, many of them of excellent families (who must not be confounded with Cyprians), become very expert in their calling. Some play upon the samisen, a kind of native harp, and also on a small, peculiar-shaped drum, beaten with the hand, and sing in their nasal tones, while others assume the varied postures by which poetical tales are illustrated, and, in many instances, dance most gracefully to sounds that, to our differently educated ears, are anything but harmonious or musical. There are four schools in the city for the education of these girls in their particular callings, and also in arithmetic, embroidery, elementary education, and all household duties. These schools are supported by contributions from hotels, tea-houses, and eating-houses, and attendance is compulsory. I found the usual cheerfulness of the people among the 600 scholars of the school we visited. All were busy, all polite and smiling. These girls, of course, keep late hours, and indulge in mild dissipation, which increases with years, and their careers are necessarily short. They are hired to grace dinners and entertainments of various kinds, and, in some few instances, accumulate a little property. This, however, is rare, and the majority, who remain unmarried, sink into poverty and early graves. The education afforded by the schools I have mentioned will, I do not doubt, prove a great blessing, and besides fitting thousands for usefulness, its teachings will serve to brighten many a declining life.

Rice-fields.—In the vicinity of Osaka and Kioto we had opportunity of making personal inspections of the abundant rice-fields and mulberry plantations, and of informing ourselves by conversation with the farmers and laborers of the methods of cultivation and annual yields. We found the rude Eastern plow in more frequent use in this region than about Yokohama and Tokio, but most of the labor still performed by hand.

From all the growing earth two crops a year are raised, and the amount gathered on each acre by the most careful cultivation and the use of liquid manures seems almost incredible. From 40 to 60 bushels of rice at one harvest is, I am told, not an uncommon yield, and is often exceeded.

OTSU AND BIWA LAKE.

Our next stopping place was Otsu, on Biwa Lake, about 13 miles from Kioto. The railway, on approaching Otsu, passes through a very exten-

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tive tunnel. Otsu, a considerable town, containing between 5,000 and 6,000 dwellings, and about 30,000 inhabitants, is situated at the south-western end of Lake Biwa—lake of the lute— so-called from its shape, which resembles that instrument. It is the capital or Shire-town of Shiga (pronounced Shing-a) ken.

Griffis falls into a slight error, in his "Mikado's Empire," when he says that "Otsu is now called Shiga." The latter is the name of the Ken or Province, in which Otsu lies, and has borne the same name for ages. It embraces in its boundaries the lake and the alluvial bottoms and valleys on its shores.

Lake Biwa is a picturesque body of water, about 60 miles long, and 5 to 25 miles wide, its beauty somewhat marred by the absence of forests or groves of trees upon its banks. Rice and other cereals, however, although not so scenic in effect, are much more highly prized by the industrious people. Some 15 small steamers ply upon the lake, all built in Japan, and run by native commanders, engineers, and crews.

Rice-curing.—One striking feature in rice-curing arrested our attention at Maiyabarra, where we left our steamer, viz, rows upon rows of bamboo erections, built in the water, from which depended large quantities of rice in the straw to dry. At first I was disposed to believe that some peculiar advantage must be obtained by the drying process taking place over the water, but upon inquiry learned that there was no other place in which it could be done. The earth had absolutely produced more than it could afford room for afterwards. As soon as the rice is gathered the land is prepared for another crop, either of winter grain or vegetables, and thus there is no space that could be used to dry the rice upon other than the water or the hills somewhat distant.

Official courtesy.—At Otsu, as everywhere else, the Japanese ken-rei or governor, and the other ken officials, showed us every kindness and attention. An intelligent native gentleman, connected with the kencho, specially detailed for the purpose, not only showed us over the place, but accompanied us on the little steamer to Maiyabarra.

JOURNEY INTO THE INTERIOR.

At this latter point we commenced our jinrickisha journey into the interior. With two men to each jinrickisha, we dashed off merrily and in a short time were ascending the hills and entering the province or ken of Gifu. All through our ride to the city of Gifu, a distance of about 30 miles, we were accompanied by two uniformed police officers (here a sort of military as well as police official), and a mounted ken official, and were, of course, objects of considerable interest to the people along the route.

INDUSTRY OF THE PEOPLE.

The country through which we passed is exceedingly fertile, and the inhabitants are industrious and frugal. As we spun along about seven miles an hour, on every side we saw men, women, and children working in the fields or at the roadside, while hundreds thronged the highway, conducting their ox-carts or carrying heavy burdens on their own shoulders.

I could not help reflecting, when I gazed on the busy workers and rich harvests, how rapidly affairs had changed in Japan. A few years ago no foreigners could have traveled through the country without efficient military protection, and in the presence of any persons of position,

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traveling as we did, with an official cortege, the working people would have prostrated themselves in the dust. Now they greeted us simply with a glance of curiosity and frequently with nods and smiles. Instead of demanding prostration from them I felt at times like doffing my hat to those patient, cheerful toilers.

GIFU AND ITS INDUSTRIES.

The city of Gifu, the official town of the ken of the same name, contains about 53,000 inhabitants.

Productions of Gifu.—The principal productions of the ken are rice, tea, silk, and porcelain. The two former bear the same general features of those raised in other portions of the country. The silk is very excellent. I saw several varieties of white, one with smooth surface and the others rippled or corrugated, soft and thick. These latter I was assured would wash, and, if so, would prove valuable for underclothing, as well as for dresses. I shall soon be in possession of a piece of each variety, and will be able to speak with more practical knowledge of their properties.

Porcelain.—The porcelain appears to be of fine quality and the decorations in light blue, which they have just placed upon some vases and tea-sets, made in foreign shapes, are exceedingly beautiful. I ordered a pair of vases and tea-set, the former to cost about 6 yen and the latter about 12 yen.

Silks.—The price of the silk, rippled or corrugated, is, for 2½ feet wide and 37½ feet long, from 22 to 28 yen, 1½ feet wide and 31¼ feet long, 8 to 10 yen. The plain surface, a little over 1 foot wide and 35 feet long, 8 to 10 yen. A Mexican dollar now purchases 1 yen 68 sen, making yen at .4047 per cent. discount.

Agricultural school.—Gifu contains an excellent agricultural school, with fine gardens attached, in which are raised a variety of native and foreign cereals, fruits, and vegetables. The accomplished director of the government schools, who is the chemical professor in the agricultural school, which now has in attendance about 40 scholars, acted as our interpreter and enabled us to examine the building and grounds thoroughly.

Growth of vegetables.—Some of the vegetables grown here are of enormous size. Some cotton bolls which I picked from plants, raised from seed obtained from the United States, are large and of excellent staple. We were told by the attendant that these plants not only yielded well, but the cotton was of a superior quality. The plants are double the size of the ordinary cotton plants grown in Japan. Further remarks upon the subject are reserved for my report on cotton.

Here we saw also upland rice growing in great quantities and perfection, yielding from 40 to 60 bushels the acre. This most useful product will be treated at length in a separate report. I am profoundly impressed with the belief that it may be cultivated in the middle and northern portions of the United States with great profit.

The want of fertilizers.—One of the most pressing wants of Japan is an abundant supply of fertilizing materials. With this the area of cultivation could be trebled and the taxable wealth increased in proportion. It was therefore with the utmost interest that I examined a sample of what appeared to be decomposed vegetable matter, of which, it was represented to me, an entire mountain was composed, situated in the Gifu ken, a considerable distance from the city. Upon inquiry I learned that no effective steps had as yet been taken to transport this material economically, and indeed no analysis had been made of it.

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A new metal.—I brought some of it with me for analyzation, and shall report the result to the government authorities. I also brought along, for the same purpose, a soft flaky mineral, of the color of lead, but of not more than one-twentieth the specific gravity of the latter, which is dug out of the earth in this prolific ken. It was represented to me as a new metal and its use unknown. When rubbed between the fingers it leaves a sensation of quicksilver. A supposition was hazarded that it might be the sulphide of vanadium. I will communicate to the department the results of a careful analysis now being made by a competent chemist.

FROM GIFU TO NOGOYA.

Leaving Gifu we again sped away in our jinrickishas, for Nogoya, passing as before, through a vast plain, densely covered with rice, with picturesque backgrounds of hills and mountains. Frequently crossing or skirting this plain in different directions, are seen embankments of immense size, running 10, 20, and 30 miles. These are to confine the waters of the mountain streams, which, during the melting snows or after heavy rains, become turbulent to the highest degree. The washings of the hills through which these streams run are brought down by the current in large quantities and deposited gradually in their beds, after reaching the level. The consequence is that the beds of very many of these streams or rivers, accumulate so much deposit, that they are much higher than the surrounding plain. I have seen them in some instances at least 30 feet higher than the rice fields on either side. The embankments are very solid and excellent pieces of work; one, upon which our road ran for some distance, was about 60 feet high, some 150 feet wide at the base and perhaps 35 or 40 feet in width at the top. Instances have been known, but they are rare, where even these solid structures have been broken through by the torrents, and disastrous consequences followed. As a rule, however, they serve their purposes admirably, and the water is kept within bounds, to be used for irrigation when required.

MANUFACTURES AND TRADE OF NOGOYA.

Nogoya, the chief city, of Aichi ken containing about 114,000 inhabitants, is situated near the head of Owari Bay, some 30 miles from Yokaiichi, its seaport. The surrounding country is not so fertile or picturesque as that in the vicinity of Gifu or Kioto, but the city is an important trading center and is the distributing point of a large rice producing region.

Porcelain and pottery.—It is especially known to foreigners for its porcelain and pottery, the product of the Seto mines, about fifteen miles from the city. In company with the ken officials we visited these interesting works, and were afforded every facility for examination. The manufacture has been carried on, as stated, for at least two thousand years, but the clay deposited in the chain of hills, in the midst of which the works are placed, seem hardly disturbed and, unless the production of porcelain be vastly increased, it looks as if two thousand more years may pass without exhausting the material.

After a few hours spent in going the rounds and witnessing the operation in all its branches, from the first reception of the clay until it was shaped, painted, baked, and polished for the shelves, we were sumptuously entertained at a fine Japanese house in the village, and were then visited by the different proprietors of the works in a body, who desired

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me to make some remarks. This I did without any preparation, but with an earnest desire to be of service, and with the conviction of the value of the industry upon which I was commenting.

On the following day the governor of the ken waited upon me in person and conveyed to me the thanks of the proprietors, at the same time requesting that I would furnish him with a copy of my statements.* He is deeply interested in the subject and is anxious to assist in the improvements I had the opportunity of suggesting. Accordingly on my return here I put my remarks into writing in language scarcely differing at all from original and am now having them translated into Japanese to be forwarded to the Aichi ken rei.

The castle of Nogoya.—The castle at Nogoya was formerly a possession of the Tokugawa family, and in the revolution of 1868 was delivered up by the commander, thus preserving it in much better state than any other in Japan. It is now occupied by a garrison, and we were shown over every part by the accomplished officer in command. It was for a long time the residence of one or more princes of the family I have named, and was therefore much more than a mere military fortress. Its carvings and paintings are exceptionally fine. The spacious apartments are divided, as in all Japanese houses, by sliding doors. These are covered with gold and superbly decorated, and the spaces over them carved in the most elaborate style. The paintings, I was informed, were by celebrated masters, and, like those in the imperial palace and the Hougagi temple at Kioto, were beautiful beyond description. Many of them are, however, being ruined by careless treatment, and it is to be regretted that the government does not remove such priceless treasures to the capital and preserve them for posterity. When gone they will probably never be reproduced, as the lavish expenditure used in their creation is a thing of the past.

Curios.—Nogoya is at present the great curio depot of the country. The native dealers have succeeded in getting possession of a large amount of furniture, gilded and painted screens, lacquer, porcelain, and bronze, the former property of wealthy nobles of the province, and their stock seems not entirely exhausted. The well-known and highly-prized Imari porcelain is also found here in great quantities.

Cloisonné ware.—A native company has a manufactory in the city of Cloisonné, where that beautiful ware is produced in great perfection. There is also an establishment of the kind near Yokohama, and the process is a most interesting one.

From a point at the extreme end of one of the long streets at Nogoya a little light-draught steamer receives passengers for the larger vessel at Yokaiichi in Miye ken. Here I embarked for Yokohama, but before reaching there we were obliged by a typhoon to run for Simoda Bay, where we remained sheltered for a day and a night, and finally cast anchor in home waters.

RÉSUMÉ—CONDITION OF THE PEOPLE.

Nowhere on our route have I witnessed any distress or beggary, of which so much is just now being said in the Yokohama foreign newspapers. That poverty and want may exist in some parts of the empire I am not prepared to deny. All farm produce is at present held at very high prices, and the depreciation of the current paper money gives the latter much less purchasing power than it possessed a few years since.

*A copy of this interesting address follows this report.

The wages of labor are gradually increasing, but have not kept pace with the rapid increase in the value of food, and, therefore, it is to be supposed that many are scarcely able to make ends meet, but I have never yet seen, nor have I had any reliable testimony of the existence in Japan, of such terrible want and suffering as are found in all western countries, with their boasted religious civilization.

The absence of this feature is owing to the economical living of the people, and in a very great degree, as I believe, to the peculiar family organization, through which no family becomes extinct, and is bound always to take care of its own. If no son is born to the house one is adopted, and is vested with all the rights which would have pertained to a natural heir, and each member of the family is amenable to correction and even punishment by its head, at the council of its other members, and each likewise is protected, encouraged, and assisted. The extensive powers possessed by these family parliaments in olden times have been somewhat curtailed of late, and, of course, would not be tolerated with us, but the principle by which the organization is perpetuated has always seemed to me an excellent one and worthy of imitation by other nations.

I have given somewhat at length the incidents of my journey, as I am led to believe that such official courtesies as I experienced and the opportunities afforded me to examine and become acquainted with different public and private enterprises, besides furnishing me with information to embody in my official reports, tend to strengthen and widen the friendly feeling existing between our respective people and governments.

THOS. B. VAN BUREN,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Kanagawa, Japan, November 20, 1880.

ADDRESS BY CONSUL GENERAL VAN BUREN TO THE PROPRIETORS OF THE SĒTO PORCELAIN WORKS, AICHI KEN, NOV. 10, 1880.

[Inclosure in foregoing report.]

GENTLEMEN: I am much pleased at this opportunity of meeting you. My friends and myself have been greatly interested in examining your works and observing the evidences of your skill and industry. It is almost impossible to overestimate the value of the vast natural deposits in the midst of which you are laboring, or the amount of wealth which, with proper means, you may accumulate from such labor.

The precious earth, which the deft fingers of your workmen are shaping into such beautiful forms, and decorating with such artistic paintings, appears to form the bulk of the great hills about you, and, in my judgment, is more valuable than a score of gold mines. Mines of gold and silver, however rich, are, in a comparatively short time exhausted, but the material you are using seems inexhaustible, and the important question for you to consider is how to properly utilize this magnificent treasure, so as to secure the greatest good to yourselves and your country.

There are some valuable things which foreign nations have learned from Japan, but many others which your people may and should learn from foreigners; and with a view to your benefit you will pardon me if I suggest that, in this very industry of yours there are certain inventions and methods of shaping, manipulating, and baking, that it would be wise for you to adopt.

Up to this time you have been manufacturing such articles of pottery and porcelain as are used only in Japan, and some fancy and ornamental pieces for sale to foreigners, but there is a much larger field for you to enter. If you desire to develop a great and valuable trade with the outside world, you should at once take steps to please not only the tastes, but the wants of other people beside your own countrymen. If you can for instance, produce good, durable dinner and tea sets, such as are used by the millions of the West, you can bring a harvest of gold to Japan and enrich yourselves and your children.

Is there any reason why you cannot make these necessary articles, and make them well? You cannot do it with your present methods.

In going through your workshops to-day, we have seen, as we have seen elsewhere in Japan, that shaping and turning the clay by hand, upon a wheel turned by the workmen, is still the only method in use, as it was a thousand years ago; and upon inquiry of the workers we found that the most skillful could turn out but about 100 small pieces a day of such as require careful handling, although one active lad informed us that he could produce about 400 a day of pieces not requiring much care.

Now, in the United States and elsewhere where porcelain is manufactured, moulding machines are used, which produce in a day about 2,200 pieces. You will see, therefore, what an advantage would accrue to you from the use of such machines; but the advantage is not only in the number made, it extends also to the perfect regularity and uniformity of all the pieces.

You are aware that no dozen of plates or saucers now made in Japan are uniform. Indeed no two of any dozen are alike. You cannot place them one above the other and have them stand firm. They are not perfectly round nor are their surfaces perfectly level. This is probably owing to two causes; one, the impossibility of producing an exact similarity by hand manipulation, with only the eye for a guide, and the other to defective baking, caused by the ill construction of the ovens, and by the presence of too much moisture in the clay when placed in the ovens. Foreign taste demands uniformity in these things; the plates of a set should be alike in form, and so should the cups and saucers. To secure this, as I have said, you will be obliged to use the molds used by foreign manufacturers, and probably to alter your ovens so as to secure a more uniform heat. I have been told that Japanese do not understand the use of the molding machines to which I have referred. If this is so it will be necessary to secure a skillful foreigner or two, who have practical knowledge of their use, who in a short time will make your ingenious workmen masters of the whole thing.

And now, as we Americans say, "Will it pay?" Will such changes in your methods and manufactures reward you for the trouble and expense? In reply I will state a few facts.

My country to-day contains over 50,000,000 of people. It is estimated that each of these requires an average of one dollar's worth of porcelain per year. Of this we manufacture at home about one-half, and the other $25,000,000 worth is imported from Europe.

Can you not successfully compete for this trade? And especially can you not monoplize the trade of the Pacific Coast, including Oregon, California, Mexico, and South America? You have the great advantage of cheap and excellent labor, and here in Seto you have your furnaces and your clay but a few miles from the great city of Nogoya, one of the largest and most active cities of the empire; and you have, too, by the bounteous provision of providence, cobalt, so much used in your coloring, found side by side with your clay.

I have no question as to your ability to create a vast foreign demand for your manufactures if you will realize its value and adopt the requisite means. In addition to proper molds and ovens you require also proper means of transportation.

When *our* forefathers were eating their meat from pieces of bark stripped from the trees of the forest, *yours* were producing beautiful forms of pottery from the clay of these very hills where we are gathered to-day. Now, if in *our* country we attempt to work a mine of gold, silver, copper, iron, coal, or clay, we immediately construct a railway of iron or wood, or a good wagon road, or all three, to facilitate the transportation of the material to the mills and to market; while you are having your clay brought to your workshops on the backs of men, as was done in the remote ages of the past, and after your manufactures are completed they are packed to market in the same way. This slow, tedious, degrading mode of conveyance must be abolished. From your clay pits to your mills, lay down tramways of wooden rails, and from here to Nogoya, and from there to the spacious harbor of Yokuchi you need a railway, or a good, smooth highway for wagons, or both. Let the men now bearing on their backs these heavy burdens be employed, some as teamsters, driving good teams of horses hitched to strong wagons, and others in your workshops, where they and hundreds of others will be required. And so with the jinrickisha men, if you will permit me for a moment to refer to a subject a little outside of that I have been speaking of. The jinrickisha men, I am told, number in the empire several hundred thousand, and average better wages than other laborers in the same rank of life; but their labor is of an exhausting character, and I think it will be admitted, tends to produce serious diseases and to shorten life. When good roads, upon which carriages and wagons can be used, shall be constructed in all directions, taking the place of the narrow paths and jinrickisha lanes, these human horses will find better, more manly, and more profitable employment, and the farmers and producers everywhere will be greatly benefited.

I am anxious that you should not misunderstand what I have said about your adopting designs, to cater to foreign tastes, and therefore I wish you to be assured

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that I do not counsel you to abandon your own designs in painting and decorating. On the contrary, I strongly urge you on no account to change your native designs in these regards, unless it be to improve upon them. By no means seek to imitate foreign designs in decoration. Your artists are not excelled, if equaled, by any in the world. Japanese painting upon porcelain commands the admiration of all foreigners, and it would be a sacrilege upon art and an exceedingly bad business speculation to abandon the exquisite traceries with which your skillful countrymen adorn your productions for poor imitations of foreign models, however excellent. Neither would I advise you to abandon your present manufactures. Continue to produce your beautiful articles of ornament, and to supply the wants of your people. But let your ambition not rest with this. You have within your reach, stretching on all sides, mountains of the best materials ready for your hands. Do not be satisfied with your present production, but send across the ocean shiploads of useful articles, increasing in quantity and quality, year by year, and bringing back gold and other useful manufactures in return. To build up a successful foreign trade you have not only the tastes of the rich to consult, but the tastes and wants of the middle and lower classes. These constitute the majority, and will purchase your cheaper wares in great quantities.

In what I have said to you, I have expressed not only my own views, but also those of my friends, General Le Gendre and Dr. Latham, the latter of whom, some five years ago, while establishing the excellent public schools now flourishing in your province, gave the subject much study.

We have made a most interesting journey through some of the richest provinces of Japan. Coming from Yokohama to Kobé, we have passed through the country to Osaka, Kioto, Otsu, Gifu, and Nogoya, and everywhere, upon all sides of us, were much gratified at the evidences of prosperity. We were amazed at the vast fields of rice and other cereals, and were most deeply interested in the varied industries and manufactures of the people, to which we gave particular attention, and we have arrived at the conclusion that whatever the price of kinsatz, the Japanese people are not starving or weeping, and that they have before them a bright future. Some poverty there may be in portions of the empire, but such industry as we have witnessed, such teeming fields, and such beautiful and increasing manufactures, will prevent distress and cure financial evils. A tithe of the vast wealth which lies in these hills of Seto alone would wipe out the trifling debt of Japan as with a sponge, and bring your paper money to par.

Let industry, production, manufactures remain free and increase, and you will have no need to trouble yourselves about national finances.

In conclusion, I have only to say that if at any time you may desire to consult me as to the suggestions I have made, or as to more definite information upon the facts I have stated, or if you should require my assistance in procuring the machines I have referred to, I shall be most happy to be of service.

AN AMERICAN PAPER MILL IN JAPAN.

REPORT BY CONSUL STAHEL, OF HIOGO.

The first American industry of any magnitude in Japan is a paper mill at this place (Hiogo), owned by Messrs. Walsh, Hall & Co. It was originally a half stuff or pulp mill, and was built in the year 1875 by an English company. In 1877 this company went into liquidation, when the property was purchased by Messrs. Walsh, Hall & Co., who continued the manufacture of pulp until 1879, when they converted it into a paper mill, the requisite extra machinery having been imported from the United States.

The establishment covers 83,304 square feet of ground. The buildings are substantially built of brick, and are partly two-stories. No expense was spared in their erection and in the stocking of the place with the most approved machinery. The total cost of the mill and plant was over $200,000.

The process of manufacturing paper is divided into two sections: First, the preparation of the material, and, second, the making of the paper.

The materials used are Japanese rags, and they are prepared by the

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following series of processes, viz, sorting, cutting, dusting, boiling, washing, bleaching, beating, and coloring.

The conversion of the pulp so made into paper comprises the following processes: Straining, paper-making, pressing, drying, glazing, cutting, sorting, and packing.

The mill is driven altogether by steam-power, and is capable of producing from 12 to 18 tons of paper per week, the output materially depending on the quality and weight of the paper made and the frequency with which the sizes and qualities are changed, as well as the management and skill of the work people, who, with the exception of the manager and two American workmen, are Japanese. The mill employs now about 200 hands, and, working day and night, produces on an average 3,600 pounds of paper per day. The daily consumption of coal is about ten tons, at a cost of about $4 (Mexican) per ton. Native coal is used.

The paper manufactured, of which I inclose some samples, is mostly sold in Japan for newspapers and books, and is in fair demand, at about 9 cents (Mexican) per pound.

I am pleased to be able to report the successful establishment of so important an industry by American enterprise at Kobe, and trust that it will prove so prosperous as to encourage other similar undertakings. Its prospects at present appear to be satisfactory to the owners, who have displayed much judgment and perseverance in organizing it.

J. STAHEL, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Hiogo, November 1, 1880.

HOSPITALS IN JAPAN.

REPORT OF VICE-CONSUL HARRIS, OF HIOGO.

The spread of hospitals throughout Japan has been so rapid that it may be well to call attention to it in a brief notice.

There were, undoubtedly, asylums for the sick and suffering, where more or less medical attention was to be had, before foreigners visited Japan. Some of these asylums were connected with the temple, and were perhaps not unlike the Asclepions of the Greeks. But it is customary when speaking of hospitals in Japan to ascribe their foundation to Dutch influence. It is recorded in section iv of First and Second Annual Report of the Central Sanitary Bureau that—

> The first hospital in Japan was established at Nagasaki by Fokugawa Shogun, in the first year of Bunkii (1861), and was placed under the management of Dr. Watsumoto, jr., present inspector-general of the army medical service, who was then studying medicine under Dr. Thomas Pompe van Meerdewoort, of the Dutch navy.

Hospitals, even now, in Japan can hardly be regarded as the same in point of usefulness as the hospitals of Europe and the United States. Their benefits have scarcely reached the poor. The higher classes only for the most part are treated in them. The hospital established in 1861 was a sort of school to which physicians from many parts of the country resorted to learn much or little, as the case might be, of western medicine. After the new *régime* in 1868, hospitals sprang up rapidly in the large towns and prefectures, and were for a time supported by private enterprise and administered by local authority. Still later the central government took charge of these institutions and appointed their chief physicians.

It is not to be supposed that these so-called hospitals all deserved the

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name in the sense which attaches to it in Europe. Often there were places where an attempt merely was made to treat patients according to the western system of medicine, with the knowledge and appliances at the moment available; and these were frequently inadequate. A few hospitals sprang into existence only to last for a few months. The Japanese were not always happy in their choice of foreign teachers. Some were not qualified and others were broken-down men, whose time of usefulness had expired. Gradually this state of things improved; but even now it must not be supposed that what are called hospitals are anything more than institutions in their infancy, so to speak. If the foreign teachers and chief physicians had been all of them perfectly well qualified for the task, they could not have taught the native physicians sufficiently by this time.

Still, to the charge of the native physicians, hospital after hospital is rapidly being left, and soon there will not be a foreigner filling an appointment in any of them.

Of hospitals for the treatment of special diseases, if we except lock-hospitals, there are as yet none, and in fact the present state of medical service in Japan hardly admits of specialization. However creditable to Japanese enterprise the founding of these hospitals may be, the fact should not be forgotten that after all they are in an exceedingly crude state, especially in the remote fu and ken.

The hospitals are classified in the report of the Central Sanitary Bureau as general government hospitals and private hospitals, 159 in all, distributed in fu and ken as follows:

Name of fu and ken.	Distinction.	Number.	Name of fu and ken.	Distinction.	Number.
Tokio fu	Government hospital	12	Tochigi ken	Public hospital	3
Do	Public hospital	3	Sakai ken	...do	4
Do	Private hospital	3	Do	Private hospital	1
Kioto fu	Public hospital	3	Miye ken	Public hospital	3
Osaka fu	...do	2	Aichi ken	...do	1
Do	Private hospital	1	Do	Private hospital	1
Kanagawa ken	Public hospital	4	Shidyuoka ken	Public hospital	2
Do	Private hospital	3	Do	Private hospital	4
Hiogo ken	Public hospital	9	Yamanashi ken	Public hospital	3
Do	Private hospital	3	Shiga ken	Private hospital	1
Nagasaki ken	Public hospital	5	Gifu ken	Public hospital	1
Niigata ken	...do	4	Nagano ken	...do	4
Saitama ken	Private hospital	2	Do	Private hospital	2
Chiba ken	Public hospital	1	Miyagi ken	Public hospital	6
Do	Private hospital	1	Fukashima ken	...do	8
Ibaraki ken	Public hospital	1	Juate ken	...do	8
Do	Private hospital	1	Yasnagata ken	...do	5
Yanma ken	...do	1	Yamaguchi ken	...do	4
Aomori ken	Public hospital	4	Wakayama ken	...do	1
Do	Private hospital	1	Do	Private hospital	3
Akita ken	Public hospital	4	Yehime ken	Public hospital	3
Do	Private hospital	3	Do	Private hospital	0
Ishikawa ken	Public hospital	3	Kochi ken	Public hospital	2
Shinane ken	...do	2	Fukuoka ken	...do	3
Do	Private hospital	2	Kumamoto ken	...do	2
Okayama ken	Public hospital	1	Kagosheina ken	...do	2
Hiroshima ken	...do	1			
Do	Private hospital	2	Grand total		159

The report from which these items were taken is the First and Second Annual Report of the Central Sanitary Bureau. Further information, as it may be received, I shall be most happy to communicate from time to time.

JAMES HARRIS,
Vice-Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Osaka and Hiogo, Japan.

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THE BUTTER TRADE OF JAPAN.

REPORT BY CONSUL STAHEL, OF HIOGO.

In order to show the increase in foreign-made butter in Japan, I have prepared a statement of the foreign butter trade of Japan from the year 1868 up to the 30th of June, 1880.

From this inclosure it will be seen that in the years 1873, 1874, 1875, and 1876 the United Sates supplied one-third of the demand, and in the years 1878 and 1879 the supply from the United States exceeded two-third of the entire consumption, but in the year 1880, while the importations from the United States exceeded one-half of the total importations, yet the shipments from the United States show a small decrease, notwithstanding that the total imports exceeded those of the previous year by 20 per cent.

My object in preparing this statement is to call the attention of our dairymen and butter-shipping firms to the continued increasing demand for this article, as there is no reason why the United States should not control the entire butter trade of Japan and China. In my opinion all that is needed in order to secure the control of this trade is, that our producers and shippers should give the required care and attention to the preparation and packing of this article, and that none but the best quality of butter should be sent to these markets. I have been informed that American butter imported into European countries is there reworked and repacked, and then again exported to this and other countries.

In conclusion I give the average prices per pound at which butter is sold here: Eastern butter, in casks, 40 cents wholesale and 50 cents retail; Boston butter, in tins, 60 cents wholesale and 70 cents retail; California rolled butter, 50 to 55 cents wholesale and 60 to 65 cents retail; Danish and French butter, 64 cents wholesale and 70 to 75 cents retail.

J. STAHEL, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Hiogo, November 18, 1880.

Statement of the (foreign made) butter trade of Japan from the year 1868 *up to June* 30, 1880.

IMPORTS.

Years.	From the United States.	From other countries.	Total value.
1868	Not specified..	Not specified..	$1, 234
1869	....do	....do	1, 001
1870	....do	....do	1, 588
1871	....do	....do	5, 062
1872	....do	....do	3, 093
1873	$9. 249	$16, 005	25, 254
1874	10, 836	31, 569	42, 405
1875	17, 099	32, 303	49, 402
1876	13, 456	28, 784	42, 240
1877	Not specified..	Not specified..	40, 584
1878	34, 347	16, 516	50, 863
1879	36, 781	15, 279	52, 060
1880	36, 031	26, 469	62, 500
Total value United States gold	.....	.....	377, 286

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THE PRODUCTS AND INDUSTRIES OF SOUTHERN JAPAN.

REPORT BY CONSUL JONES, OF NAGASAKI, ON THE PRODUCTS, CLIMATE, AND INDUSTRIES OF THE ISLAND OF KIN-SHIN, SOUTHERN JAPAN.

Area.—The island of Kiu-Shin, of which Nagasaki is the only open port, is the extreme southern island of the insular Empire of Japan. I have not been able to ascertain from government authorities the extent of its area in square miles, but from measurement on the scale of its published maps it is about 180 miles in length, taken north and south, and about 120 miles wide, from east to west. It is indented with numerous bays and surrounded by a great number of smaller islands, all more or less inhabited, and all included under the name and jurisdiction of Kin-Shin.

Government.—For administrative purposes, it is divided into provinces, or, more properly speaking, prefectures, which are governed by officers appointed by the central government.

Population.—The population of Kin-Shin from all the information I have been able to obtain, is estimated as about five times that of Nagasaki ken, of which there is a census, and that in 1879 amounted to 1,139,403 persons, of whom 578,536 were males, and 560,867 were females.

The population of the entire island, therefore, estimated on this basis, would amount to 5,697,015 persons, and that, from the number of populous towns and villages throughout the islands, several cities being larger than Nagasaki, is rather under than over a fair estimate.

Climate and products.—The climate is mild, somewhat similar to that of South Carolina or Florida, and the vegetation semi-tropical. The palm and the cactus are found here in great variety. Not much attention has been given heretofore to agriculture, and no improved agricultural implements have found their way into this part of Japan, the natives still using the rude, awkward-looking implements used by their ancestors two thousand years ago. The soil produces with little attention two crops of vegetables and cereals, while rice, cotton, tea, and tobacco seem to be indigenous.

Of fruit, the orange, fig, and pomegranate are in great abundance and of fine quality. The banana grows vigorously, but does not perfect its fruit. There is a great number of native fruits peculiar to Japan, not very palatable to the foreign taste, except the kaki, or persimmon, which is abundant and very good. Foreign fruit trees have been introduced in the neighborhood of Nagasaki, but as yet with little success. An experimental garden has been established here by the government, but has not had time for results.

TEA PRODUCTION AND PREPARATION.

Production.—The production of tea for export to foreign markets in the island of Kin-Shin amounted, some five years ago, to about 25,000 piculs annually (a picul is 133⅓ pounds). The low prices ruling in 1876 and since then, to a certain extent, discouraged the cultivation of tea on a large scale, and many plantations were neglected for more profitable pursuits, so that now, though its cultivation is in more favor, the total production for this year is only estimated at some 20,000 piculs. Out of this quantity about 7,000 or 8,000 piculs reach Hiogo and Yoko-

hama directly, which are larger local markets, and where it is used for mixing with the tea of those districts.

The principal tea-producing districts of this island are Chikugo, Higo, Bingo, and Ourishima, adjoining and in the neighborhood of Nagasaki. From Chikugo some 6,000 piculs are exported, of which about 4,000 piculs go direct to Osaka for the Hiogo market. The balance of 2,000 piculs is shipped from this port, the greater portion to North China. The Chikugo teas are in many respects the most suitable for export to the United States, being similar in quality, &c., to the teas of the northern or middle part of Japan, which are known there; for this reason, too, they are very desirable for mixing, and the consequence is that the greater portion of the production finds its way to the larger ports for this purpose. The teas from Chikugo are usually shipped from Hakata, an unopened port, in native junks, to Osaka or this port.

Adjoining the Chikugo district is that of Bingo, which produces about 3,000 piculs, the most of which is shipped, in junks, from an unopened port to Osaka.

The Higo district produces some 6,000 piculs, which nearly all comes to this market.

Ourishima produces about 2,500 piculs. Some of this is exported to Tien-Tsin, in China; the better qualities are the finest teas grown in Kin-Shin, but being of a very curly appearance, not unlike the green teas of China, they do not find a ready sale in the United States. In Canada, however, this leaf is more popular, and is exported thither in large quantities.

Preparation.—With regard to the preparation of teas the process in this island is, generally speaking, very simple. The native women commence picking the young leaves from the plant, which is an evergreen, about the beginning of May. The leaves are then placed on mats and rolled for some time by hand, until they assume a curled-up appearance, and are then either dried in the sun or gently fired in iron pans till dried sufficiently to prevent from spoiling. The teas are then packed in straw bales of about 60 catties each (a cattie is 1⅓ pounds), and sent to market for sale. When purchased by the tea merchants, who have large buildings and arrangements for the purpose, the teas are subjected to a careful firing in iron pans, with charcoal fires, for a period of from one to two hours, during the whole of which time it is incessantly stirred by hand. This process takes out all the moisture from the leaf, causes it to be more compact and improves the color.

The finer teas are prepared with more care by the natives. Immediately after picking, the leaves are placed on linen or other cloths above a vessel of hot water, and steamed for a short time. They are then very carefully rolled, while still moist, by hand, till they are well twisted, and then placed on large sheets of paper in wooden trays over charcoal fires until they are thoroughly dried, then packed in boxes of about 50 catties to 1 picul, and sent down for sale.

The process after reaching the tea merchant is exactly the same as described for poorer teas.

Tobacco.—The season for this is just commencing, and the crop appears to be a large one, and in quality superior to that of former years. The leaf is assorted into grades according to size, and pressed by hydraulic pressure. It is then packed in bales of about 300 pounds. It is shipped mostly to England. The export last year was 4,000 piculs, but promises to be larger this year.

Vegetable wax.—This article, until the introduction of kerosene oil, was largely used by the natives in the manufacture of candles. It is

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obtained from the berry of a large and handsome tree. The berry is boiled, and the result is the wax, which is bleached white by exposure to the sun.

There are large plantations of these trees throughout the island. If improved appliances were used in the process of manufacture, the industry might be considerably increased.

The wax is mostly exported to England, and in smaller quantities to the United States, where it is used for laundry and other purposes.

Camphor is exported in considerable quantities from this port. The Chinese merchants have the bulk of the business, and send it chiefly to Hong Kong, where it realizes good prices. It is also exported to England and the United States. Camphor trees are abundant in Kin-Shin, and are used for making many articles of furniture, as well as for the drug. The drug is obtained by cutting the wood into small pieces of about a foot in length, and boiling these in large iron pans. It is also extracted from the leaves in the same manner. When brought to market the camphor is put in wooden tubs covered with matting, and in this way shipped abroad. Each tub contains about 1 picul of camphor, 133⅓ pounds.

Rice.—The rice crop has been large, but not a great deal exported, for the reason that the prices have been good at home. The farmers have been giving attention to their crops, and the quantity of the rice has been, in consequence, improved. The fact that rice keeps well for two or three years enables the farmers to hold their supplies without depreciation.

Prepared food.—Dried fish, mushrooms, and other articles of food prepared for the Chinese and Korean markets, is a growing trade, and is almost entirely in the hands of the Chinese merchants.

Porcelain.—Nagasaki is the principal place in Japan for porcelain, the potteries and works for this business being situated in its immediate vicinity. The various tasteful designs and colors in which these articles are wrought have already given it a world wide reputation. The lacquer, bronze, and tortoise-shell work made here have a like repute, and these industries have assumed considerable dimensions.

Coal.—The coal mines of Takasima, six miles from Nagasaki, on an island of that name, are the most important and valuable in Japan. The quantity exported is very large, and an almost equal amount is consumed in ships' use. The supply is considered ample for many years to come.

Dry-dock.—The dry-dock at this port, which occupied six years in construction, is a work creditable to any country. Its dimensions are: length, 460 feet; breadth, 89 feet; depth, 28 feet. It is used alike by native and foreign vessels.

Light-houses.—Another work of importance to commerce, completed nearly a year ago, is the Goto Island light-house, situated on the extremity of one of the group of islands of that name, near the entrance of this harbor, where it is of great advantage to vessels trading between Nagasaki and China. The light, which is a white revolving light, is plainly visible 22½ miles at sea.

ALEXANDER C. JONES,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Nagasaki, October 15, 1880.

TRADE BETWEEN COREA AND JAPAN.

REPORT BY CONSUL STAHEL, OF HIOGO, JAPAN.

I have the honor to report that since Japan has commenced to have commercial relations with Corea the finance department has twice issued returns showing the state of the trade. The first report was for the half year ending December 31, 1879, and the second for the first half of the current year.

Believing that a *résumé* of these returns will be of interest to our commercial men at a time when the early opening of Corea to Americans and Europeans is looked for, I call attention to the most salient points of these reports.

During the half year ending December 31, 1879, the exports from Corea to Japan amounted to 346,561 yen; while the imports were, of Japanese productions 31,167 yen, and of foreign productions 282,714 yen, making the total imports 313,881 yen. The exports from Corea thus exceeded the imports by 32,680 yen.

The principal articles of imports in Corea were as follows:

JAPANESE PRODUCTION.

	Yen.
Kaiki (smooth silk cloth)	4,629
Cotton	1,207
Sake	2,978
Copper	6,297
Copper ingots	4,210
Matches	1,347

FOREIGN PRODUCTIONS.

T-cloth	219,728
Cotton sateens	1,003
Red cambrics	1,653
Victoria lawns	25,950
Cotton yarn	7,844
Glass	1,327
Redwood	1,808
Violet dye	5,575
Blue dye	7,818
Red dye	4,231

During the first half of the present year the exports were 466,543 yen, while the imports of Japanese productions amounted to 31,891 yen, and the foreign production to 267,988 yen—in all 299,879 yen.

The principal articles of import during the first six months of the present year were as follows:

JAPANESE PRODUCTIONS.

	Yen.
Sake	3,081
Copper	7,252
Copper ingots	7,269
Matches	4,908

FOREIGN PRODUCTIONS.

T-cloth	135,148
Cotton sateens	1,486
Victoria lawns	69,927
Red cambric	2,123
Cotton yarn	5,350
White metal	2,506
Brocades	5,161
Rifles	2,739
Blue dye	6,221
Red dye	2,482

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Upon comparing these returns it will be seen that the exports from Corea for the last half year were 119,982 yen over those of the preceding half year. The imports of Japanese products during the same period show an increase of 724 yen, while those of foreign productions show a decrease of 14,002 yen. It appears, therefore, that while the import trade has been falling off, the exports show a considerable increase.

In conclusion, I annex a list of the principal articles of exports from Corea to Japan, viz: Pure gold, gold dust, silver, gold sheet, bronze, iron, white beans, red beans, rice, wheat, ogon powder, ginseng, peony bark, raw silk, silk goods, hides, cattle and horse bones, paper plants, hoops, beche de mer funori (gum), dried sardines, isinglass, shark fins, awabi shells, gall nut, oil cakes.

J. STAHEL,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Hiogo, Japan, December, 1880.

AUSTRALASIA.

THE AUSTRALASIAN WOOL TRADE.

EXTRACT FROM THE ANNUAL REPORT OF CONSUL-GENERAL SPENCER, OF MELBOURNE.

By a reference to the statistical information contained in Mr. George Brown's valuable work on "Sheep Breeding in Australia," it appears that there were in the Australasian colonies in 1879 over 61,000,000 sheep, and that the exports of wool amounted to the grand total of 316,293,387 pounds, valued at $80,000,000.

The rapid development of this important trade is strikingly illustrated in a chart recently issued as a supplement to the British Trade Journal. According to the chart the total amount of wool imported into Great Britain in 1850 was 74,300,000 pounds, of which the Australian colonies furnished 39,000,000 pounds. In 1879 the imports of wool into the United Kingdom amounted to 411,100,000 pounds, of which the Australian colonies contributed 285,000,000 pounds, or about seven-tenths.

From this it will be seen that the export of the great staple production of Australia has increased seven fold during the last thirty years.

I beg leave herewith to submit a review of the wool market for 1879–'80 furnished this consulate by the vice-consul-general.

My last report on the wool trade was brought down to the commencement of the season of 1879–'80, which opened on the 15th of October, 1879, with the regular public sales, and continued to the end of February, 1880, when supplies of the regular clip having all been marketed, the period of active business may be said to have closed, the exports for the remainder of the year, to September 30, consisting almost solely of scoured wools.

At the outset the sales elicited an active inquiry on the part of a full attendance of buyers, representing British, French, German, and American interests. A brisk demand on the part of the latter caused prices for fine greasy wools to approximate closely to the ruling rates of the previous year, whilst other descriptions, notably cross-breeds and small parcels of inferior quality, were obtainable from 1*d.* to 2*d.* lower. As the season advanced and the very firm attitude of the English market

became known, prices for all kinds hardened, and the light-conditioned parcels, so suitable for the American requirements, were eagerly taken up at full prices, a large proportion of the choicest wools grown in Australia being included. The value of these ranged from 12*d.* to 13½*d.* per pound, while in a few exceptional cases higher figures were obtained.

The demand thus created for these wools had a strengthening influence on the market as a whole, and the quantity taken for the United States being, as above stated, from good to superior quality, was a very important feature in our trade. The exports by American buyers amounted to about 17,500 bales, representing a value in this market of about $1,849,270. Of this amount 13,500 bales were shipped to the United States direct from Melbourne, 1,200 to Sydney and thence direct, and the remainder, 2,800 bales, was forwarded in steamers to London and thence across the Atlantic. Only during two previous years were these exports exceeded since the opening of a direct trade with the United States.

The past winter has been, on the whole, favorable to pastoral pursuits. A fair amount of rain has fallen, and, with the exception of a section of Southwest Riverina, feed and water for the stock have been abundant.

The natural increase has been fully an average one, and may be estimated from 70 to 75 per cent. on the number of breeding ewes. Under these favorable conditions, it is not to be wondered at that the annual clip of 1879–'80 has proved a very large one, and, with the exception of that produced in the district just referred to, of excellent quality, well grown, and in good marketable condition. It is estimated that the losses by recent drought have been made up, and that the exports this year will nearly reach the highest point yet attained.

Accounts from the neighboring colonies of New South Wales and South Australia regarding their wool productions are equally satisfactory.

Owing to the increased facilities for transportation, wool has arrived at Melbourne as early as the latter part of August of the present year, and it is expected that the entire yield will have reached this port by the 31st of January, 1881. The early arrivals were at once shipped to London for the November and December sales, the steam freights now available in this port affording unusual facilities in this respect. The annual public sales in this market began on the 6th of October, and have gone on daily up to the present date. Owing to the abnormally high prices obtained in London in February and April of this year, many growers preferred risking that market on their own account instead of selling in the home markets, and the quantity offered here has consequently been less than usual; still no fewer than 60,000 bales have already been sold, and this number will probably be increased to 100,000 bales before the close of the season.

It would appear that the result of the operations of the American buyers last year were not of such a character as to induce their repetition this season on a similar scale, and when the market opened it was at once observable that the ruling rates were from 1*d.* to 1½*d.* per pound, too high to admit of any transactions of magnitude. On the other hand, British and Continental buyers have freely purchased, and have throughout sustained opening prices, which may be quoted at fully 1*d.* per pound above those current during the corresponding period for 1879. For the fine greasy merino, or "delaine," wools, prices have been paid ranging

from 11½*d.* to 13½*d.* per pound, superior qualities realizing from 14*d.* to 14½*d.* per pound, at which figures the market remains steady.

Up to the present time but 2,000 bales have been purchased for the United States—a marked falling off from the transactions of former years. A portion has been sent to Sydney for transshipment to San Francisco, and the remainder will go by ship direct to Boston.

The supply of light-conditioned wools has been much reduced, on the one hand by the purchases of French and German operators, who are the principal competitors of the Americans, and on the other by shipments on growers' account to London, so that the present supply of such wools is very limited.

The exports of wool for Victoria from the 1st of October, 1880, to the 26th of November, amounted to 139,181 bales, as compared with 132,088 bales for the corresponding period last year. The total exports from Victoria for the year ended September 30, 1880, amounted to 332,766 bales.

O. M. SPENCER,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Melbourne, November 1, 1880.

THE KAURI GUM OF NEW ZEALAND.

REPORT BY CONSUL GRIFFIN, OF AUCKLAND.

Kauri gum, which is so extensively used in the United States for the manufacture of varnish, is a product peculiar to New Zealand. It consists of the dried and solidified sap of the kauri tree, a species of pine known to botanists as the *Demerara Australis.* It does not exist in any other part of the world. It is found only in the province of Auckland, in that part of the colony lying to the northward of the thirty-ninth degree of south latitude. Indeed, it does not seem ever to have extended so far south as that line, but within the last few years a good deal of gum has been found in the swamps of the Waikato Valley, and 38° south may be regarded as its extreme limit southward.

It is certain, however, that the tree does not grow in the Waikato district, the climate being too cold. In the neighborhood of the city of Auckland a few kauri trees are to be found in an isolated clump in a forest about forty miles to the southward of Auckland; but it is an isolated clump, and no young trees growing up among them, and as it is in the neighborhood of several ancient volcanic points of eruption, probably when they grew the climate of the locality was warmer than it now is. To the northward of Auckland, however, is the great district where the kauri is found at the present time, and there too the largest quantities of the kauri gum are found.

It was the opinion of many for a long time, and I doubt not the opinion of many still, living out of New Zealand, that kauri gum is a fossil article, like amber, and is no longer being produced. This, of course, is a mistake, but it is nevertheless true that the best and by far the largest quantity of merchantable kauri gum is dug out of the ground. It is found at various depths, from just above the surface of the soil to many feet below the surface. The places where it is found in greatest abundance are places which have been in former ages covered with the kauri pine tree, but which are now generally bare of forest covering. It is

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found on bare hillsides, on flat clay lands, in swamps, and even in some places that are covered with a more or less thick coating of volcanic *débris*. As a rule, however, the kauri tree loves a clay soil and subsoil, and is generally found growing upon steep hillsides exposed to the strongest southwest winds in New Zealand.

The open land where kauri gum is dug out of the soil is generally covered with various species of ferns, principally *pteris esculenta*, *pteris incisa*, *pteris macilenta*, *pteris scaberula*, *pteris tremula*, &c., and the principal vegetation of the swamps where it is found is a plant known to the Maories as ranpo, the *typha angustifolia* of the botanist.

Not unfrequently around the edges of these swamps, and along the low-lying portion of the flat land where kauri gum is found, grows in abundance the "tea tree" of the settlers, the *Lepto sperm'um scoparium* of science. Sometimes the gum is found in small detached lumps, and at other times large deposits will be found in one hole. On cultivated land it is not unfrequently turned up by the plow, and in many places cutting large drains in swamps have revealed large deposits of this vegetable product. It is also not unfrequently found in the forest, but as the kauri trees and nearly all the New Zealand trees do not send over large tap roots, but immense numbers of large surface roots, the difficulty of finding and digging kauri gum on forest-covered lands is proportionately increased.

In the forks of the large branches deposits varying from a few pounds to nearly a hundredweight are sometimes met with. When a kauri tree is cut in the bark, even the largest and oldest of them, varying in diameter from 6 to 10 or 12 feet, it will bleed like a young sapling. In a few weeks, if the weather be dry, a large mass of half-dried gum will have oozed from the wound, not unfrequently appearing in the form of a great, thick band, reaching from the wound to the surface of the soil around the tree. When a tree is felled the stump bleeds in a like manner until large masses of gum can be broken off from the stump. This "young" gum is white in color, and has not the rich amber color which age imparts to it when stored beneath the surface of the soil away from the action of sun and weather.

The gum is not soluble in water. It ignites freely and burns with a lively sooty flame. It froths and bubbles, and produces a pleasant aromatic odor. The perfume it exhales when burning in the open air is not unlike that of frankincense and myrrh.

THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN KAURI GUM AND AMBER.

Some of the finer specimens of kauri gum are used in the manufacture of jewelry, but, while it is very clear and beautiful, it is not so desirable for this purpose as amber. It is nothing like as hard as the latter, and is much more brittle, and insects and plants are not so frequently found imbedded in it.

The original amber forests appear to have extended over a vast stretch of country. They are said to have reached from Holland over the German coast through Siberia and Kamschatka even to North America.

Professor Zaddack, of Königsberg, is of the opinion that the trees yielding the amber resin must have grown upon the green sand beds of the cretaceous formations, which at the time formed the shores of estuaries, where the lower division of the tertiary formation accumulated. Immediately over the amber-producing strata rest the brown coal beds, the fossil plants found in which differ entirely from the amber-bed flora.

The Maories, notwithstanding the scarcity and antiquity of amber,

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will not be persuaded that it is any more beautiful than a fine specimen of kauri gum. It is questionable, however, whether the ornaments made from the latter will ever become an article of commerce. When I first undertook the preparation of this report I thought I should have little difficulty in making myself familiar with nearly all the interesting facts connected with the subject; but, after consulting the various public and private libraries of Auckland, I was surprised to find that very little had been written about kauri gum. I had access to some forty or fifty volumes upon New Zealand, but in no one of them could I find the desired information, although many of these works are written by authors distinguished for their love of research as well as for their superior ability and scholarship.

Since I could obtain no knowledge of kauri gum from these sources, I have been obliged to depend for such information as I am able to communicate to you mainly upon my own observations and experience, and upon such facts as I could gather in conversations with some of the old residents of New Zealand and with those engaged here in promoting this industry.

Kauri gum was known to the native race long before the islands were settled by Europeans. They used it for the purpose of kindling their fires, and it is also said to have been employed by them in their religious rites, but there does not appear to be any ground for the statement.

Kauri gum became an article of commerce immediately after New Zealand became a British colony. At first the exports were small, amounting to about 100 tons per annum. The price of gum at that time ranged from $24 to $28, per ton. The natives then were the only persons engaged in searching for it and bringing it to market.

METHOD OF DIGGING THE GUM.

The implements used in digging for the gum consist of a spade and a spear. The spear is a long steel rod about half an inch in diameter, with a wooden handle with a cross on the top like that of a spade or a shovel. The rod is brought to a point, and the gum-digger pierces it into the ground. Practice and experience enable him to tell whether he is touching a stone or a piece of gum. When he touches the gum he digs around it until it is extricated and then renews the search as before.

The number of persons regularly engaged in digging gum varies from 1,800 to 3,000, the greater part of whom are Maories, but even they do not show any special fondness for the work. They resort to it when they become pressed for food and clothing on account of the failure of their crops or other causes. Many Europeans have resorted to this kind of work, but they belong generally to a class who are unruly and impatient of the restraints which a civilized life imposes upon them, and who prefer to camp out after the fashion of gypsies, and live in tents and ranpo huts rather than in houses fitted for civilized beings. The gum-digger generally camps upon unsold Crown lands, where he is allowed to pursue his occupation without being disturbed. Sometimes a small annual rent is paid for the privilege of digging upon certain lands.

No regular wages are paid the digger. Each man takes his chances and works when he likes. Sometimes he may earn as much as $3 and $4 per day, but his average earnings do not exceed $5 or $6 per week. His remuneration of course depends upon the quantity and quality of the gum he is fortunate enough to get, which in his case depends as much upon chance or luck as upon the amount of skill or diligence he may bring to bear upon his occupation. The gum-digger sel-

dom, if ever, takes care of his earnings. The money he gets generally is expended at the nearest tavern in having what he calls a "jolly good spree."

It is generally supposed that a European who resorts to gum-digging is unfitted for any other occupation. He leads a reckless dare-devil sort of life, away from friends and kindred, and from the restraints of civilization. All the finer feelings of his nature become blunted, and he falls to a lower depth than the savages with whom he makes his home. Among this nomadic class are a number of the degenerated sons of the aristocracy of Great Britain.

HOW IT IS PREPARED FOR EXPORT.

When the gum is taken out of the ground it is covered with earth, and its surface is found to be in a partial state of decay. When the digger is tired of work he puts his gum into a bag and carries it to his tent or hut, and in the evening or upon rainy days he, with the assistance of his wife and children, scrapes off the decayed surface until the clear solid gum beneath is reached. When a sufficient quantity of it has been scraped, it is put into a box or bag and taken to the nearest store or public house, where it is sold for what it will bring. Sometimes the purchaser will assort it, but it is not generally sorted until it reaches the city buyer, who employs a large number of skilled hands for that purpose. The gum, after it is scraped and assorted, is packed carefully in boxes, so as to prevent the lumps from breaking. It is then ready for export. The dust and scrapings are also exported.

Some of the gum is used in New Zealand for the manufacture of varnish, but in no great quantity.

The export of kauri gum for the year 1880 will be larger than that of any other year. The total export for 1878 was 3,410 tons, and 3,247 tons was the total export for 1879. The invoices thus far received indicate that the total shipment for the year 1880 will be 5,500 tons.

THE PRICE OF GUM.

The price of gum varies, of course, according to quality and the condition of the market. It ranges from $144 to $720 per ton. The greater part of it, however, is bought at the former price. The average price may be safely set down at $216 per ton. At this rate the total value of the estimated shipment for the year 1880, viz, 5,500 tons, would be $1,188,000. More than two-thirds of the gum goes to the United States. It is either shipped to New York and Boston in sailing vessels, or to London for transshipment to the American cities.

THE COST OF FREIGHT.

The merchants here, in sending gum to the United States, usually ship it in vessels that have been chartered in New York for the round trip. The agent to whom the vessel is consigned loads it with gum which he has previously prepared for export, and he will not take freight for any one else. Sometimes, when he has not gum enough to load his vessel, he may take freight for other parties, and when he does, the charge is from $14.40 to $16.80, per ton.

The cost of freight upon gum from Auckland to London is usually from $12 to $14.40 per ton.

THE PRINCIPAL GUM MERCHANTS IN AUCKLAND.

The following is a list of the leading merchants in Auckland engaged in the export of kauri gum, viz: Arnold, Hines & Co., Walker & Co., H. P. Barber & Co., Stewart & Garlick, Brown, Campbell & Co., Owen & Graham, S. I. Edmonds, Hull Brothers, H. B. Morton, and Cruickshank & Co.

WILL KAURI GUM BECOME EXHAUSTED?

The question is often asked in New Zealand if kauri gum will not soon become exhausted, and the question may be answered in the affirmative.

The kauri pine is an admirable timber tree. The wood is very hard, and is susceptible of a beautiful polish. It is extensively used in house building and in the manufacture of furniture. It also makes excellent masts and spars for ships. The trees grow to a height of 150 to 200 feet. There is a fine old kauri within 25 miles of Auckland which measures 203 feet in height and 61 feet in circumference. A curious fact may here be mentioned in connection with the kauri pine, and that is, it is the only pine of all the coniferæ of New Zealand bearing a cone, and the other pines, such as the *Totara*, *Kahikatæ*, and other species of *Podocarpus* and *Dacrydium*, produce berries.

It is a matter of regret that the kauri forests are disappearing. The trees are being so rapidly cut down that they will soon cease to exist. The government has not taken any steps to protect them, either by conserving those that remain or by planting new ones. At the present rate of consumption, fifty or eighty years will see the great bulk of the kauri trees cut down. Of course, when the trees are destroyed there can be no deposits, and kauri gum will become a thing of the past.

Some idea of the yield of the gum fields can be formed from the following table, showing the number of tons exported from Auckland from the year 1871 to 1880 inclusive:

	Tons.
1871	5,206
1872	4,684
1873	2,619
1874	2,196
1875	3,127
1876	2,871
1877	3,448
1878	3,410
1879	3,247
1880 (estimated)	5,500
Total	36,308

The amount of gum taken out of the soil up to the present time has been so great that it would probably require a forest growth of ten thousand years to replace it.

G. W. GRIFFIN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Auckland, November 25, 1880.

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THE TOBACCO TRADE OF NEW ZEALAND.

REPORT BY CONSUL GRIFFIN, OF AUCKLAND.

FOREIGN TOBACCO.

I have the honor to inform you that there has been during the present year a brisk and steady demand for American tobacco and cigars throughout the entire colony of New Zealand.

Imports.—The revenues from the imports of tobacco into this colony for the quarter ending September 30, 1880, amounted to $259,306, against $172,567 for the corresponding quarter of last year, thus showing a balance of $86,739 in favor of the quarter of this year.

Duty.—The duty upon tobacco here is 84 cents per pound.

The American tobacco used in New Zealand is principally of the manufacture of Messrs. Alex. Cameron & Co., Wm. Cameron & Co., T. C. Williams, Wm. Barrett, and John J. Childrey.

Cigars and snuff.—The revenue from the imports of cigars and snuff for the quarter ending September 30, 1880, amounted to $21,226, against $18,749 for the corresponding quarter of the year 1879.

NEW ZEALAND TOBACCO.

It is well known that in some parts of the North Island of the Colony of New Zealand away from the seaboard the soil is particularly adapted for the growth of the finer qualities of tobacco. The native race for many years past have grown large quantities of this plant for their own use, but only one serious effort has been made by the white residents to cultivate it for manufacturing purposes, and that was in 1872. At that time the question of the successful cultivation of the tobacco plant was very generally discussed throughout the colony, and the government in order to promote that industry made a grant of land to a German named Gotch, who for that consideration and other facilities afforded him by the government undertook to cultivate tobacco upon an extensive scale. At first he met with reasonable success, but being a man of limited means and dissipated habits, he was in a short time obliged to abandon the pursuit. No other attempt has been made to grow tobacco in New Zealand except in small quantities.

The Colonial Parliament passed an act to allow tobacco to be manufactured in bond December 19, 1879. This act provides, among other things, that any persons desirous of manufacturing tobacco must obtain a license to do so, and enter into—

A bond with two good and sufficient sureties to Her Majesty in the sum of £1,000 condition for the due and faithful observance of all laws and regulations relating to the manufacture of tobacco in force in the colony, or which may be in force at any time after the execution of such bond.

Another part of this act provides that—

The duty on tobacco manufactured in the colony shall be the same as the customs duty for the time being on imported tobacco of a like sort, but there shall be allowed to every licensed tobacco manufacturer, during the years 1880 and 1881, a bonus of 6 per cent. for every pound of tobacco manufactured in the colony on which the duty hereby imposed shall be paid, and such duty shall be paid by the customs as a refund of revenue.

This act is regarded by many persons here as placing restrictions upon the cultivation of tobacco. It is said that while it may not be

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prejudicial to the tobacco manufacturer who raises his own tobacco, it will operate against the small farmers who may be obliged to sell theirs to him.

G. W. GRIFFIN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Auckland, N. Z., December 3, 1880.

CONTINENT OF EUROPE.

THE PETROLEUM INDUSTRY OF GALICIA.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL WEAVER, OF VIENNA.

I have just received the following items in regard to the petroleum industry of Galicia, which may be of some special interest to our American producers and exporters.

Mr. James Carrigan, formerly established as oil refiner in Cleveland, Ohio, came to this country in the spring of 1879, and, after visiting the several oil districts of Galicia, came to the conclusion that an American oil refinery, if established in that country, could be made a success. Consequently, in the fall of the same year he imported from the United States the best machinery to be found, and brought with him the necessary employés and operatives in order to erect a refinery constructed on the most approved methods, capable of producing daily 150 barrels of refined oil. After experiencing great difficulty in procuring an eligible site and overcoming untold opposition and enmity on the part of the native Poles, he succeeded, by the 1st of July last, in opening up his refinery, at an expense of over $40,000, which has continued in operation up to the present, during which period of time he has refined about 5,000 barrels of oil.

This was the first attempt to erect a steam refinery in this country, and the natives, actuated by fear of a monopoly, or from selfish reasons, exhausted every effort and ingenuity that could be brought to bear against the undertaking in order to cause it to fail, although it has been a recognized fact that the principal cause of the slow development of the Galician oil industry up to this time has been the lack of capitalists and experts having the special knowledge requisite to command success. This opposition was, however, carried to such an extent, that the producers were influenced to combine against the "interloper," and finally they refused to sell or furnish, at any terms, to the refinery their crude oil; but Mr. Carrigan, not to be outdone, sent off and procured supplies of imported crude American petroleum from Hamburg. By this means he finally broke down their foolish opposition.

Mr. Carrigan informs me that the annual production in Galicia will not exceed 100,000 barrels, although certain published reports by interested parties put the production at double that quantity. About two-thirds of the whole is produced in West Galicia, or in the immediate neighborhood of the locality of the American refinery, which is Greybow. He states also that the quality of the oil from the various wells differs very materially, but in general it is very much inferior to the American grades, not only in that they possess a much heavier specific gravity, but that it is found almost impossible so to refine them that they would pass such a test as is required in England and Germany. In fact, he reports that the refined Galician oils cannot be considered safe from the liability to explosion at any time, since the explosive elements of the crude oils, particularly the benzine, adhere so ten-

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aciously to the illuminating element in the process of distillation that to produce a good, safe illuminating oil, without admitting and employing some of these dangerous elements, is next to an impossibility. It may be inferred, consequently, that this Galician petroleum can never come into serious competition with the American in point of quality.

It would appear, however, that another effort is shortly to be made in the Reichsrath, supported by the producers and the present minister of finance, in order to increase the entry duty on refined petroleum from 3 to 8 florins gold per 100 kilograms, and to collect a revenue tax of 5 florins paper on the production of 100 kilograms refined petroleum, in the empire. This modification would serve two purposes: first, protect native refineries, and, second, furnish to the exchequer of the empire an increased revenue of from 4,000,000 to 5,000,000 florins. As the deficit for 1881 is estimated in Austria at 35,000,000, and in Hungary at 25,000,000 florins, it would seem that the project would very probably become law. It is very possible that the increased entry duty may also be put on crude petroleum. It pays 1.50 florins per 100 kilograms at present, but in order to foster the trade and protect the producers, many of whom are said to be monopolists and legislators, an effort in this direction is threatened. Yet our people can, in the main, feel indifferent in regard to the firm action of the government, for, with or without an increase of duty, the consumption of petroleum having become a necessity, will continue with but slight abatement, and the trade will not be seriously affected, for the reasons stated above, viz, the relatively small quantity produced, and the inferior quality of the same, as well as from the fact that the present high railway tariffs in force in this empire must absolutely prevent these home-produced oils from being disseminated throughout the country at anything like the modest prices ruling in America for native oils. Consequently it would additionally appear that American petroleums have as yet nothing to fear from the prospective competition of those of Galicia in point of price.

From the accounts given by Americans employed in Galicia to sink the petroleum wells, it would appear that the operation is attended with much greater difficulty than in America, chiefly on account of the nature of the strata of soil and rock through which they are compelled to pass. The soil is not as firm, and the strata of rock being found at almost any angle, from a horizontal to a perpendicular, the slate spalls off and jams the drills, so that frequently they cannot be removed, but must be cut out at great labor and expense, or lost. More tubing is also required, and in driving it to such depths as are not known in America, it is jammed and destroyed, either by the spalls or gas, so that methods which have proved successful in America failed in Galicia.

JAMES RILEY WEAVER,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Vienna, December 3, 1880.

WOOL AND WOOL-WASHING IN BELGIUM.

REPORT BY CONSUL TANNER, OF VERVIERS.

The branches of industry principally cultivated in Verviers are the manufacture of cloth and wool washing. For several centuries, as far back as 1432, Verviers was noted as a cloth-manufacturing place; at that remote time, however, it was carried on by handicraft.

In modern times Verviers has lost nothing of its reputation, always keeping pace with the different stages of improvement in cloth making,

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and at the present day if it cannot claim pre-eminence it can, at least, claim to make as fine cloth as is produced in the world.

I shall confine myself principally in this dispatch to the subject of wool-washing, thinking, perhaps, it may not be looked upon in America with its proper importance by those who have the handling and, more particularly, the manufacture of wool.

The great quantity of wool consumed in Verviers naturally makes the wool trade an important one to this place, large quantities of which are imported from Australia and South America. The Australian wool is considered the finest, but that from Buenos Ayres seems to take precedence with the manufacturers of Verviers, who have agents in the South American states who buy the wool on the backs of the sheep, from whence it is shipped to Antwerp, and thence to Verviers, washed, and then shipped to all parts of Europe.

There was an improvement made here in spinning several years ago which gives promise of becoming an important element in the industry of Verviers. This system produced an entirely new kind of yarn, called here *laine cardée*, or carded wool, which is a growing industry and promises one day to take first rank in the business of Verviers.

I will briefly state the manner in which Verviers and her trade have risen to the position they now hold in a commercial point of view. In the year 1801 Verviers only contained 9,600 inhabitants; at the present time it lays claim to 48,000. In 1801 Verviers consumed 8,333 bags of wool; now it consumes 60,000 a year! Verviers produces 400,000 bolts of cloth yearly, the amount of capital employed in carrying on the business being about 200,000,000 francs.

The yarn industry in its new form was inaugurated in 1863. That year the amount of yarn exported did not exceed one million of kilograms. In 1867 the quantity of yarn exported had risen to about three millions of kilograms. The amount of washed wool shipped from Verviers in 1863 was 536,150 kilograms; in 1864, 637,350; in 1865, 4,313,370; in 1866, 4,591,400 (of which 2,000,000 kilograms were directed to Germany, in spite of the Prusso-Austrian war and the thence ensuing commercial crisis); in 1867, 5,470,420 kilograms. This latter was in excess of the shipments of the preceding year, 879,020 kilograms, and representing, after the lapse of four years, tenfold the amount of the shipments made in 1863. In 1875 it had risen to 7,874,594 kilograms, which is 40 per cent. more than in 1867; in 1877 it had still increased, and was 8,256,718; and in the year 1879, 10,000,000.

These shipments, as a general rule, are to Germany, Holland, Austria, Italy, Russia, Spain, and Sweden.

In consequence of such a vast amount of the raw material being used here, every resource and energy of those interested in it was concentrated upon the perfection of the wool prior to placing it in the hands of the consumers.

On observation it was discovered that the principal difficulty to be met lay in the washing. Verviers at that time depended upon a little creek that wound its lazy length through the city, which was found inadequate in quantity, and, on analysis, was found to be utterly worthless for washing purposes.

Realizing the importance of the purity of water, and the proper supply of the requisite ingredients, a committee was appointed, much money expended, and finally a plan was devised. It was found upon close investigation that to wash, rinse, and dye wool in the proper manner, the water must contain no chalky deposits. I thought perhaps an analysis of this water (which increases the price of wool washed in it 5 per cent.

over that washed by other water in Europe) might be of benefit to our wool industry, and I had one made. I found upon investigation that in every respect the water was like rain-water, both in appearance, taste, and ingredients; its characteristic being that it is perfectly free from lime and chalky substances. The importance of having the right kind of water was proven here by the following experiment:

One cubic meter of water from the Vesdre containing lime and chalky deposits was found to cause a loss of three kilograms of soap, at a value of nearly one dollar, before it would answer the desired purpose. When used for rinsing, the same chalky substance forms combined with soap an indissoluble froth, which will depose on the wool, which thereby becomes rough and stiff, and acquires a dull color, without either pureness or luster. Ten years were spent in finding means of obtaining water of the proper kind and quantity, and about as long a time was required in executing the plan, which consisted in the construction of a dam on the river Gillippe, costing seven millions of francs. This dam is situated on the confines of Belgium and Germany, five miles from Verviers, and is visited by thousands of people weekly as an object of curiosity. It stands a monument to the skill, industry, and perseverance of Verviers, and a proof to all concerned in the handling of wool, of the importance of having the proper kind of water with which to wash it.

I would say to the large number of thosein America, who are interested in the woolen business, that if they wish to compete with that branch of industry here, the thing of first importance to them is the wool washing and the water used in it. I will merely add that the vast basin which holds the water of the Gillippe contains no deposits of lime or chalk, but runs over slate and sandstone, and thinking it would be of importance to our American industry, I have had this water analyzed with the results already stated.

GEO. C. TANNER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Verviers, December, 1880.

THE WORKING OF BUTTER IN DENMARK.

LECTURE BY PROFESSOR SELGE, TRANSLATED BY CONSUL RYDER, OF COPENHAGEN.

In the kneading of butter the object one has in view, as is well known, is to work the butter together, to remove the buttermilk and to properly distribute the salt, so that when the work is concluded the salt shall have been equally distributed and no more buttermilk than is proper is to be found in the butter. Its color should be light yellow and the same throughout; its consistency, butter-like; its taste and smell agreeable to the wishes of customers, and all these qualities should be as well established as they possibly can be in every way under given conditions.

In order to attain this in the widest sense, one will do well first to have one's attention drawn to the consistency of the butter, because mistakes on this point will not only reduce the fineness of the butter in that regard, but will be observable in many other respects. In making errors in the consistency one closes easily the door, for example, in the running off of the buttermilk. If there remains a surplus of buttermilk

in the butter, the consistency will not only be further reduced (loose butter, thick butter, porridge-like butter), but the taste, smell, and appearance will also suffer.

Taking it all in all, the condition of the butter's consistency is dependent on the butter never being overkneaded, which will be the case when it is pressed in an improper manner, or when worked too long at one time. Apparently all kneading is injurious to the consistency, because it leaves the butter softer and more fatty than is desirable that it should be at the close. If it is only allowedto remain in repose for a time, one will find that it hardens again and becomes firmer than before, provided that it has not been kneaded too much; but when the butter has been overworked it is, and will continue to be, "fatty." Its powers for raising itself can in truth be compared to those of steel springs, which one can bend as often as possible, without diminishing the elasticity, but if one overstrains it even for a single occasion, then it will no more raise itself. So it is with butter, and the grand rule for the working of butter therefore is, "rather too little than too much kneading at one time." This rule ought, therefore, to be the guiding one from the very commencement of the formation of butter during the churning until it is laid down in the cask; at every stage care must be taken to avoid overworking.

The amount of working the butter can endure at one time must be regulated according to its condition, depending on the fodder as well as upon the degree of temperature. The softer the butter is by nature, so the warmer it will be, and so much less kneading will it bear; at the same time, the reverse will be the case the firmer and colder it may be. In the summer one must consequently treat it more gently than in the winter; warm butter must also be treated more gently than cold butter. If it comes warm from the churn it must be treated more gently at first than when it is colder. When churned at a high degree of temperature extra care must be taken to avoid overchurning, and so forth. One must therefore always adapt the treatment to the conditions; but even then one will perceive that the aim to a consistency in the butter is anything but encouraged by a forced kneading with regard to time. Take it easily, give the butter time to raise itself, and then it will acquire the desired firmness, and it will then reject the buttermilk almost voluntarily from itself, and so it will subsequently show itself more durable.

The butter does not derive advantage from a great part of the buttermilk—which can be removed in a short time by kneading—being allowed to remain in it double and treble that length of time, because the chemical formations commence their operations immediately, even if somewhat curbed by the proportionately low temperature supposed to be in the dairy, and during all the time the butter is in the trough, and especially every time it is kneaded, it is more exposed to the state of the atmosphere than when it is laid down in the cask, and atmospheric influences are anything but favorable in a chemical point of view. Should there be any defect in the butter trough, or if the air in the room be not pure, so will the danger increase on all sides the longer the laying down is delayed. One may attempt to correct something here and there, but the result will always be that the longer the laying down is put off, so much more will the butter lose in "freshness," and thereby in value, in the judgment of all first-class judges. There are doubtless consumers to be found with so slight a developed taste that they cannot tell the difference; but it is not these who pay the high prices so much desired.

If one in practice is placed between these two alternatives, it is very common that, in the course of time, one goes back and forward like a pendu-

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lum between the two extremes. Twenty years ago one allowed one's self good time in the kneading of butter, and in the later years, as opposed to this, it has sometimes been performed too rapidly. Twenty years since butter was worked at least three, generally four, and frequently many more times, and days went by, even weeks, before it was put down into the cask. Now, as a rule, one must be content with two kneadings, and the whole is often performed in fewer hours than formerly days were used thereat.

If one would make proper calculations, there could be no doubt whatever but that the speedier laying down is an advance; but it must be conducted with judgment, and proper regard must be paid to the conditions, the sending off, and the consumption, which does not always take place. The rapid laying down of the butter can be dated from the autumn of 1872. The sweet, and especially the curdled butter, which was just then introduced into this country, was often wanting, in much too sensible a degree, in that peculiar toughness, which, through sweet butter, one had become used to, and it was taken for granted that this want chiefly arose from overkneading. Experiments were made in the hastening over of the second working, and then immediately laying down the butter in the cask, in the hope that by doing away with the third working, the working together, &c., would diminish the danger from overworking, which was considered to be more dangerous than somewhat more or less buttermilk.

The butter which was produced in this way in the course of the winter of 1872–'73 astonished every one by its freshness, and as this was a quality which hitherto had not shown itself, the matter created considerable attention. This procedure was immediately introduced in all the dairies which delivered butter for the packing business, and spread rapidly from these to those which produced butter for the ordinary export to England, although these last-mentioned ones certainly worked under different conditions, because the butter of their produce does not go through a course of reworking, as is the case with the packing butter previous to its being placed in tins, and, as a sequence of this, there is no opportunity later on of removing all possible surplus of buttermilk, and reducing the mischief consequent thereof.

The mode of proceeding then became as follows: The butter, as soon as it was taken out of the churn, received its first working, that ended in its weighing, and the interweighing of the salt, when it subsequently was allowed to remain for a time in quiet, when it was worked a second time and then immediately laid down in the cask—each churning by itself, when several churnings were requisite for the filling of the cask.

As will be easily perceived, this mode of procedure presupposes that one and the same color is carefully employed, and in the same respect with all the corresponding churnings, when the butter should not be of layers of different colors. As, however, was shown in my previous article on irregularly-colored butter, this as a rule is not a cause of much difficulty when one is careful in taking good notes and keeps an eye on the butter to prevent this sort of irregular coloring. It is neither difficult to prevent the other, and at present more common, mistake, that the butter becomes spotted, variegated, flowered, or veined, which, as granted, is due to an uneven division of the salt or of too much buttermilk (as, for instance, irregular distribution of the salt produces specially variegated butter, too much buttermilk, chiefly flowered, small-veined butter), and appears when the butter is only worked twice, and the second working has not altogether been such as could be desired. Where the temperature is reduced in the locality where the butter is

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worked, and remains between the first and second working, the butter will at the same time be cooled more on the surface than in the interior, and in proportion thereto will require somewhat more working—that is to say, a part of this will go in breaking the crust and making the butter pliant, and the remainder will scarcely suffice to allow of the salt being equally distributed. The same will be the case if it should be equally cold in the locality, and that, without one's perceiving, time plays a considerable share where the butter is permitted to remain a too-unequally long time between the two workings. After a longer lapse of laying by, the butter will require more working, and if one does not keep this in mind the butter will be speckled. All that is required to prevent the butter from being spotted, owing to irregular distribution of the salt, is, namely, to take care of the warm temperature in the locality, or the firmness of the butter, and according to that regulate either the time which should elapse between the first and second working or the compass of the second working. The colder the butter, and the more the butter is exposed to cooling, so much the quicker should the second working follow after the first. It will be necessary, in proportion as the temperature sinks, to shorten the time between the first and second working from three to two, one and one-half, one, and half an hour, even, perhaps, less than the last.

To prevent the butter from becoming speckled on account of the irregular distribution of the salt is easy enough. To get the buttermilk out, so that it shall not injure the butter's uniformity of color later on, is somewhat a more intricate matter, because the second working does not play so decided a part; but even when other circumstances than those mentioned operate, one can always, as far as the buttermilk is concerned, arrive at the object in view by allowing the butter to lay a somewhat shorter or longer period between the first and second working (shorter period when the temperature is diminishing, and a longer period when it is increasing in the locality), or by working it a little more, when one does not again go to the other extreme.

Even if any early laying down by unpracticed hands can offer some difficulties in regard to the color of the butter, still these are so easy to overcome, that on that score no grounded objection can be made against the system.

It is therefore chiefly the question, how far one is able, under all circumstances, in the two workings, together with an early laying down, to remove the buttermilk sufficiently when regard is taken to the taste of the butter, its keeping properties and consistency, and how far one is enabled to satisfy the demand with respect to its consistency on all points.

Upon this question, which demands much consideration, I shall take it upon myself further to report, as soon as a favorable opportunity is afforded of continuing the commenced investigations on the working of butter.

HENRY B. RYDER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Copenhagen, November 15, 1880.

INTERNATIONAL EXPOSITION OF ELECTRICITY.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL WALKER, OF PARIS.

Owing to my long connection with the telegraph and telephone interests of the United States, I have been much interested in a decree which appeared yesterday in the Journal Officiel of the French Government, signed by the President of the Republic, convoking an international congress of electricians, to be held in Paris on the 15th of September, 1881, under the presidency of the minister of posts and telegraphs. The ministers of the French Government, and the ministers of foreign governments which shall participate in it, shall be of right members of the congress. The palace of the Champs-Elysées (Palais de l'Industrie) is to be placed gratuitously at the disposition of a private commission, which is authorized by the government to organize, at its own expense and risk, an international exposition of electricity, to be held from August 1 to November 15, 1881. This exposition is placed under the patronage of the government, to the approbation of which the general plan will be submitted, and by which the commissioner general is to be named. The ministers of posts and telegraphs, of public works, and of foreign affairs, are respectively charged with the execution of the decree. By a subsequent decree, M. George Berger, who held the position of director general of the foreign sections in the Universal Exposition of 1878, is appointed commissioner general of the international congress of electricians, and of the international exposition of electricity.

The abovementioned decrees are founded upon a proposition submitted to the President of the Republic by the Hon. M. Cochery, minister of posts and telegraphs, in which the importance to France and to the world of such a congress as has been thus provided for is set forth with much force and clearness.

I inclose herewith the original text of said decrees, and of the ministerial proposition on which they are founded, together with translations of the same, which I have personally prepared. I also inclose, in order to show the interest which the proposed congress has already awakened in the most intelligent circles of the French Republic, the original and translations of two articles which have appeared in the latest numbers of the Temps and the Journal des Débats, newspapers of the highest character and influence both in official and private circles.

While the subject of these decrees will come officially and formally before the Government of the United States through its minister at Paris, or the minister of the French Republic at Washington, I venture to think that the matters to which they relate fall strictly within the range of those commercial and industrial facts which it is made the duty of consular officers to communicate to the government. In this sense I may be permitted to express the hope that the country which gave birth to Franklin, to Morse, and to Henry, and which is now the home of Gray, of Edison, and of Bell, will not neglect to participate in the proposed congress of electricians, and to impress upon it those scientific ideas in relation to one of the greatest forces which modern discovery has furnished to the world, which have received such a remarkable and rapid development in our own country.

GEORGE WALKER,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Paris, October 27, 1880.

REPORT OF MINISTER COCHERY TO PRESIDENT GRÉVY.

[Inclosure 1 in Consul-General Walker's report.]

Mr. PRESIDENT: Important and unexpected discoveries have recently called public attention in a peculiar manner to all that relates to electricity; industry has at the same time availed itself of these conquests of science, and within a few years past multiplied the applications of them in all directions. There is at the present day no science which seems destined in a more remarkable degree than the science of electricity to realize a rapid progress, to furnish a solution to problems which affect the economic life of nations, and, in short, to render inestimable benefit to society in all its different relations. For a long time electricity remained a capricious agent, inconstant, difficult of control, incapable of being utilized. Anterior to Volta, although its action had been ascertained, it could neither be explained nor produced, and still less measured. The discovery of the (Voltaic) pile and the improvements which were speedily made in it, the investigations of Ampère and Arago into currents and their magnetic action, and the researches of Faraday on induction, opened new and fertile paths in which the onward progress has never been arrested.

The pile and the magnetic action of currents gave birth to the telegraph; the development of the telegraph has enabled electricity to emerge from the obscurity which environed it. It is, however, upon submarine cables that it has been possible to investigate and to discover the laws in obedience to which electric action is developed and propagated.

Electricity is a force. Just in proportion as the knowledge of this force has been enlarged, the existence of it has been everywhere recognized, sometimes as cause, sometimes as effect, in the phenomena of physics, of chemistry, of mechanics, and of organic life. At the present day there are various methods of producing it; it is measured, and it is applied to the most diverse uses. It possesses this peculiar property, that its effects can be transmitted by metallic conductors more easily and to a greater distance than is possible with those of steam by mechanical instrumentalities.

The function of electricity is no longer confined to the sending of telegraphic signals to distant points, but it also transmits and reproduces sounds, and even human speech. It contributes to the safety of operating railways; agriculture and navigation are indebted to it for meteorological indications, which are becoming more and more useful and important; it illuminates the streets, public places, warehouses, and workshops. It is, in short, coming to be a universal auxiliary to the arts and to industry.

In all countries scientific men and those engaged in the useful arts are endeavoring to perfect the methods of producing and of utilizing the new force. The results obtained are already numerous and considerable, but they are still in many cases insufficient and incomplete. It would be a most interesting matter to put on record the exact state of the science and of its applications, to bring together and to compare the processes of investigation, to the end that such direction should be given to future labors, wherever undertaken, as should facilitate and assure their success.

International expositions, and scientific congresses by which they are so usefully supplemented, have made it possible to place practical applications side by side with theory. It is this which has led me to propose to you to convene an international congress of electricians, and authorize simultaneously with it an international exposition of electricity, which shall be, so to speak, the laboratory of the congress. This exposition will comprehend all that relates to electricity. It will bring together apparatus of all kinds and from all quarters, which serve to create, to transmit, and to utilize it.

Such a congress, convoked by the French Government, would bring together at Paris the most eminent electricians. These representatives of the marvelous science whose vast resources have hardly yet begun to be revealed, and which by its constant surprises baffles the human intellect, will discuss together the results already arrived at, and the theories most recently advanced; they will so group together and co-ordinate their forces that the observations made in all countries may be utilized with certainty and made mutually to assist each other in future investigations.

Upon the invitation of France, foreign nations will gladly avail themselves of this opportunity to codify, so to speak, and to measure the depths of electrical science. They will owe their indebtedness to the Government of the French Republic for having made itself the promoter of a scientific discussion, the seasonableness of which cannot be doubted, and which will have for its corollary the international exposition of electricity.

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The congress should be the work of the government, for the government alone can impart to the undertaking that independent character which is the essential condition of success. The exposition will easily be organized by private initiative. The patronage and hearty co-operation of the government will, however, be assured to it, and the palace of the Champs-Elysées will be placed gratuitously at the service of those who shall organize it.

The action of the government will be carried out through the intervention of a commissioner-general, whose office it will be, under our direction, to facilitate the proceedings of the congress, and at the same time to superintend the general operations of the exposition.

The government will appoint the French members of the congress, the official scientific body, the industrial arts, and the learned societies of Paris and the departments will each have their representatives in it. If, according to established usage, the presidency of the congress should be held to belong to the country where it is assembled, one-half the number of vice-presidents should be reserved to the countries which are invited by France to participate in it.

The international exposition of electricity will be opened on the 1st of August, 1881, and will close on the 15th of November following. The labors of the international congress of electricians will commence on the 15th of September, 1881, in the rooms of the palace of the Trocadero.

The department of the government which has immediate charge of the telegraphic service is that most directly interested in the question. The persons connected with it take a leading part in all that relates to electricity, and it is they who investigate the different discoveries and put them to practical application. They are in relations with all the leading electricians of the various countries. The telegraph itself will derive great advantage from the exposition and from the congress, and be able to gather from them large ameliorations in its service.

In furtherance of these views I have caused the annexed decree to be prepared, and I have now the honor to submit it to your excellency's approval.

Be pleased to accept, Mr. President, the assurance of my highest respect,

AD. COCHERY,
Minister of Posts and Telegraphs.

The foregoing report is accompanied by the following decree:

ARTICLE 1. An international congress of electricians will be inaugurated at Paris on the 15th of September, 1881, under the presidency of the minister of posts and telegraphs.

ART. 2. Three vice-presidents shall be chosen from among the French members and three from among the foreign members of the congress.

ART. 3. The ministers of the government of the French republic, and the ministers of foreign governments which shall participate in the congress, shall be *ex officio* members of the same.

ART. 4. The palace of the Champs-Elysées shall be gratuitously placed at the disposal of a private commission, authorized by the government to organize at its own risk, expense, and peril, an international exposition of electricity from the 1st of August to the 15th of November, 1881.

ART. 5. The international exposition of electricity is placed under the patronage of the government.

ART. 6. The regulations for the management of the international exposition of electricity shall be submitted to the approval of the government, which shall appoint the commissioner general.

ART. 7. The minister of posts and telegraphs, the minister of foreign affairs, and the minister of public works, in so far as each of them is concerned therein, are charged with the execution of the present decree.

Done at Paris, the 23d of October, 1880.

JULES GRÉVY.

By the President of the Republic.

AD. COCHERY,
Minister of Posts and Telegraphs.
B. SAINT HILAIRE,
Minister of Foreign Affairs.
SADÉ CARNOT,
Minister of Public Works.

By a decree dated October 24, 1880, rendered on the proposition of the minister of posts and telegraphs, M. George Berger, former director-general of the foreign sections at the Universal Exposition of 1878, has been appointed commissioner-general of the international congress of electricians, and of the international exposition of electricity.

THE INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF ELECTRICIANS.

[Inclosure 2 in Consul-General Walker's report.—Translation of an extract from the Journal des Débats, October 27, 1880.]

A decree of the President of the Republic, published this morning in the Journal Officiel, institutes an international congress of electricians, the sessions of which will commence at Paris on the 15th of September, 1881. The same decree authorizes the opening of an international exposition of electricity, under the patronage of the government, from August 1 to November 15, 1881.

The report of the minister of posts and telegraphs, which lays the foundation for this decree, contains a very exact statement of the progress already realized in the knowledge of electrical forces, and of the practical results which it is hoped to obtain from them in future. The congress of electricians will be a governmental affair. It could not be otherwise, for the government alone offers those plenary guarantees of conscientiousness and of independence which should belong to it. Any learned congress, any society for the encouragement of science or industry which should place itself at the head of such an undertaking, would run the risk of being considered the mouthpiece of some partisan clique, and would, for that reason, fail to secure the requisite international confidence. The exposition can, on the other hand, without inconvenience, be organized by private initiative. The government will give assurance of its patronage by lending to it the palace of the Champs-Elysées, and by furnishing a certain portion of the motive power for experiments and for the permanent operation of machinery.

We have reason to know that the offers of a responsible capitalist have been accepted. This gentleman will assume the entire financial responsibility of the enterprise, so that the committee of organization, the composition of which will be submitted for ministerial approval before being published, will have no occasion to interfere otherwise than by advice and in respect to carrying out the details.

A recognition of their great opportuneness ought to assure a favorable reception of these undertakings of the French Government. We recognize the perfectly legitimate earnestness of private interests with which the industrial problems of private industry are invested, but a large part of the good-will of investigators and of the intelligence of labor continues unproductive because the efforts which are made have no fixed basis and no common measure of control; in other words, because electric science does not possess the universal language which it needs, and lacks fundamental formulæ established by international agreement.

It is necessary, for example, that a common system of unities or of measures should be adopted without delay, to put an end to the confusion from which both electric science and electric industry are now suffering. This capital question cannot be resolved without the concurrence of competent and authorized men, chosen in all countries. Then only will it be possible to discover the true scientific method of procedure and to find the way to the industrial solutions which we have a right to anticipate. This is also the only means of preventing capital from too often wasting itself in undertakings which, however praiseworthy, can only meet with failure.

The exhibitors will be the auxiliary members of the congress, and their intelligence and practical experience will constantly be appealed to. They will be in a position to develop their ideas and theories, and to demonstrate before the congress the advantages of their systems. Although it is intended that diplomas of merit and medals shall be awarded to the most deserving, the exhibitors will find their principal reward in the notoriety which they will attain in the impartial appreciation which will be extended to their apparatus, and in the terms of the official report of the proceedings of the congress, which will be largely devoted to a critical description of the objects exhibited.

It is to be hoped that the French Government and the commission for organizing the exposition will abstain from formulating in advance too methodical or narrow programmes, either in respect to the order of proceedings at the congress or of the classification of the apparatus in the palace of the Champs-Elysées.

The ignorance which still exists as to the precise state of the industrial applications of electricity demands very great caution in this regard. The congress will determine its own method of procedure, and the contributions of exhibitors cannot be definitely classified until after their actual presentation.

It is important that foreign nations should understand that both the congress and the exposition are not intended to favor any particular theory or system, and that their simultaneous creation has no other object than the advancement, the demonstra-

tion and the establishment of a positive science, destined to aid the development of industrial labor.

In order to combine all desirable guarantees both for itself and for the guests of the French nation, the government has wisely decided that the commissioner-general appointed by it to direct administratively the labors of the congress, should, by virtue of the same commission be also director of the operations of the exposition. The choice which has been made of M. George Berger will certainly meet with universal approval by reason of the pleasant recollections which the foreign commissioners retain of the director of the exposition of 1878.

The session of the Congress of Electricians and the time of the opening of the Exposition of Electricity will, perhaps, coincide with the period of the parliamentary elections. It is worthy of our country and of its government to show that even in the midst of the preoccupations of its domestic politics, France continues not to lose sight of the great questions of general interest, the discussion of which, even before their successful solution, contributes to the increase of the public wealth.

THE CONGRESS OF ELECTRICIANS.

[Inclosure 3 in Consul-General Watkin's report.—Translation of an extract from Le Temps, October 27, 1880.]

The government has just taken the initiative in the name of France in an undertaking which does it the highest honor. By a decree dated October 23, rendered upon a proposition of the minister of posts and telegraphs, an international congress of electicians has been convoked at Paris for the month of September of next year. This congress will be preceded by a universal exposition, in which all the discoveries and all the applications of which electricity shall have been the object, will be publicly brought together and compared. As has been very well said by the honorable Monsieur Cochery, in his report to the president of the republic, this exposition will be, in a certain sense, the laboratory of the congress. The learned men of the whole world will find collected there the most perfect instruments which science has created up to the present time. They will have under their hands for new investigations and new steps onward, all of its secrets that the genius of man has hitherto wrested from that mysterious force, electricity. Of all these conquests, hitherto divided and fragmentary, they will effect the synthesis. Making common stock of their labors, for the common good of humanity, they will, perhaps, and as we may fairly hope, arrive at the solution of some one of these curious problems. such as the transmission of sound, that of visual images, that of power itself, to a distance by means of electricity. It is well understood that there is going on at this moment in the hitherto almost unexplored field of physics an investigating movement of prodigious activity, the first results of which are fruitful of promise.

The international congress of 1881 will lend to this movement an incomparable power by giving it direction and unification, and by combining so many distinct endeavors and disassociated ideas into a single endeavor and a common thought. It is impossible not to be impressed with the character of serenity and grandeur which such a union represents.

It was worthy of our government to initiate this undertaking. The universal exposition of 1878 had no doubt sufficiently proved the modern ideas, that is to say, the entirely pacific and practical intentions of our young republic. The moral effect of the exposition has not been forgotten. Such acts have not to be begun over again, but we continue them, if we know how to adapt them to the changing conditions of the time and of circumstances, to the true demands of industry, and to the ever varying aspects of science.

To summon each of the branches of human knowledge in its turn to figure in an exposition which shall be especially consecrated to it; to pass then in review, not simultaneously, but successively, our acquisitions and discoveries; to put the division of labor thus in the inventory of our forces and of our wealth, at the same time that we affirm the sovereign harmony of different peoples; what more noble mission, and what an undertaking for a nation enamored of liberty, of labor, and of peace.

Regarded from this point of view, the decree of October 23 may well mark the beginning of a new era in the organization of expositions. Such examples will always be a magnificent spectacle and brilliant testimony to the solidarity of nations; but when they shall thus assume a special character they will also become one of the most extraordinary instrumentalities of progress.

17 FEB

THE WINE INDUSTRY OF FRANCE.

REPORT BY MR. EATON, CONSULAR CLERK AT PARIS.

In compliance with instructions of the Department, requiring annual reports from United States consular clerks upon commercial movements, &c., I have the honor to submit herewith the result of a series of investigations made by me upon the subject of the wine industry of France.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.

In preparing this report, I have had the encouragement of the Consul-General and such assistance as he was able to give me through special reports upon the subject which have been sent him. I am also greatly indebted to the United States consular corps in France, for information promptly and cheerfully furnished at my request.

Mr. Peixotto, our consul at Lyons, sent me such a complete report upon the wine culture of the Burgundy district (Côte d'Or), that I insert it in my report, as written, with the exception of some reductions from the metric to the wine measure of the United States, upon the basis of 26.4 gallons to the hectoliter, while he makes his calculations upon the basis of the imperial measure, 22 gallons to the hectoliter.

The following publications have been consulted for data, viz: The Journal Officiel de la République Française; L'Economiste Française; Tableau du Commerce de la France; Annuaire de l'Economie Politique, &c.

WINE PRODUCTION OF FRANCE.

Table showing the wine production of France by years, from 1870 to 1879, inclusive.

	Gallons.
1870	1,413,375,031
1871	1,502,186,849
1872	1,323,239,491
1873	942,892,362
1874	1,667,057,700
1875	2,207,896,122
1876	1,104,754,147
1877	1,489,101,583
1878	1,286,222,599
1879	680,316,173

The product per hectare (2.4711 acres), which was 15.9 hectoliters (420 gallons) in 1788, reached, according to the official statistics of 1875, 25 hectoliters (660 gallons), with the following variations:

In 1788 the product per hectare was 15.9 hectoliters (420 gallons); from 1808 to 1820, 15 hectoliters (396 gallons); from 1821 to 1857, 10.3 hectoliters (272 gallons); from 1857 to 1865, 20.1 hectoliters (531 gallons); in 1859 the produce was above the average having reached the figure of 30 hectoliters (792 gallons).

The duties upon *boissons* (beverages), which amounted to 179,000,000 francs in 1859, reached 205,000,000 in 1861, 250,000,000 in 1869, 289,000,000 in 1872, and 327,461,000 francs in 1873.

The following tables show the quantities of wine produced, the quantities subjected to tax, the quantities consumed by producers free from

tax, the quantities and value of importations, the percentage of taxation upon the value, and the mean price per gallon for various periods since the year 1826.

Years.	Produced.	Taxed.	Consumed by producers, free from tax.
	Gallons.	*Gallons.*	*Gallons.*
1862	979, 704, 000	544, 297, 961	25, 080, 000
1867	1, 032, 979, 200	687, 869, 556	370, 075, 200
1869	1, 848, 000, 000	739, 200, 000	528, 000, 000
1871	1, 502, 186, 849	499, 137, 956	421, 159, 200
1872	1, 323, 239, 491	757, 824 223	204, 109, 488
1873	942, 892, 362	413, 550, 826	258, 249, 233

Importations of wine.

Years.	Gallons.	Values.
1859	3, 401, 376	$1, 505, 400
1862	3, 202, 848	1, 080, 800
1869	9, 983, 160	2, 721, 300
1871	3, 900, 864	1, 254, 500
1872	13, 686, 816	3, 744, 200
1873	16, 996, 320	5, 558, 400

Taxation of wine.

Years.	Percentage of taxation upon the value.	Mean price per gallon.
1826–1831	16⅔	$0. 273
1832–1836	16⅔	0. 254
1837–1842	11	0. 254
1843–1847	11	0. 282
1848–1851	11	0. 203
1852–1854	16⅔	0. 294
1855–1857	18	0. 458
1858–1861	15. 23	0. 376
1862–1867	14. 55	0. 36

Table showing the values of wine imported into France, and exported therefrom, during the ten years from 1870 to 1879, inclusive.

Years.	Imports.	Exports.
1870	$980, 800	$44, 606, 000
1871	1, 254, 500	47, 012, 800
1872	3, 744, 200	54, 649, 000
1873	5, 558, 400	56, 250, 000
1874	5, 949, 200	45, 851, 600
1875	2, 759, 000	49, 496, 200
1876	5, 053, 400	42, 320, 000
1877	5, 892, 800	48, 152, 200
1878	11, 843, 400	40, 221, 000
1879	21, 074, 400	45, 917, 000

BURGUNDY WINES.

[Report of Mr. Peixotto, United States consul at Lyons, upon the wine culture in his consular district.]

LYONS, *October* 18, 1880.

The wine districts embraced under the consulate of the United States at Lyons are particularly those of Bourgogne (Burgundy), the Beaujolais, and a part of the Midi.

The wines of Burgundy are esteemed among the best in the world; in richness of perfume and flavor, and all the more delicate qualities of the grape, they unquestionably deserve the first and highest rank, and it was not without reason that the duke of Burgundy, in former times, were designated as the *princes des bons vins*.

Romané-Conté, Chambertin, the Clos Vougeât, and Richebourg, are the most celebrated of the red wines of Burgundy. Chambertin was the favorite wine of Louis XIV, and of the first emperor, Napoleon. It is the produce of a vineyard of that name, situated seven miles to the south of Dijon. It has a fuller body and color and greater durability than the Romané, with an aroma nearly as fragrant.

The white wines of Burgundy are less numerous, and consequently less generally known, than the others; but they maintain the first place among French white wines, and are not inferior to the red, either in aroma or flavor.

The principal trade in Burgundy is carried on at Dijon, Georey, Chalons-sur-Saône, &c.

The fine wines of upper Burgundy are exclusively harvested in the districts of Dijon and Beaune.

In quality the most favored climates of the department of the Côte d'Or (so named on account of the golden quality of its wines) are divided into three principal groups:

1st. The Beaune hill-sides which extend from Sautinay Comblauchien, and possess the *crus* (growths) of Chassagne, Saint Aubin, Brussanes, Gravières, the *clos* Taraunes, Montrachet, Perieres, Combettes, Charmes, Goutte-d'Or, Santenot, Volnay, Pomard, Beaune, d'Aloxe, Corton, &c.

2d. The Nuits hill-sides, which commence at Premeaux and possesses the *crus* of Perrières, Corvés, Didiers; the forests of Saint George, Thoreys, Argilliats, Cras, Chagniots, Bondots, Malconsarts, Grand Rue, Varvilles, Tâches, Romanée-Conté, Romanée-St-Vivant, Richebourg, clos Vougêat (the largest vineyard of Burgundy, 48 hectares, 118.61 acres), Musigny, Amoureuses, Hauts-Donaix, Sordes, Babilliers, Chambolles, clos de Tart, Roche, Lambugs, Chambertin (not less renowned than the clos-Vougeât), clos de Beze, clos Saint Jacques, de la Chapelle, &c.

3d. The hill-sides of Dijon, which are composed only of isolated hills and which are the least rich of the three. They possess the *crus* of Crebillon, Perrière, Chapitre, Marsanay, Chenôre, clos de Roy, which, as a rule, yield only medium qualities compared with the others.

Next to the Burgundy district comes the Maconnais (department of the Saône et Loire). This district may be divided into five wine belts, four of which produce the red, and the fifth the white wines of Macon.

The best wines, to wit, Thorins, Romanèche, and the Chapelle de Guinchay, are comprised in the first belt. The second embraces the vineyards of Saint Amour, part of the canton of Chapelle de Guinchay, and South Macon. The third belt is composed of the vineyards of Davayé, Bussieres, Charnay, Chevagny, Milly, Pierreclos, Prissé, Saint-Sorlin, &c. The fourth belt comprises North Macon and Luguy. In the fifth are Pouilly, Fuisse, Solutré, Loché, which vineyards produce the best wines of Macon.

The vineyards of the Chalons sections, or, as they are called, Côte Chalonnaise, yield generally only ordinary wines; the best reported are called Mercury, Rully, Giory, and Saint-Martin-sous-Montaigne. Vines are, however, cultivated in all the rest of the district, and among the secondary wines may be mentioned, among red wines, those of Blancé, Chasnes, Chenoves, Jambles, Laines, Regal, Lurigny, Montagny, Saint-Genoux, Saint Jean-de-Vaux, Saint Julien, Saint Marc, Saint Vallerin, Saucé, Sauecé, Saules, and Vincelles, and of the white wines, Bouzeron, Buxy, Chenôve, Duvayé, Vergisson, Vinzelles, &c.

In the Rhone department the wines most esteemed are those of the Beaujolais. They are cheap and, for daily use, the best for general beverage and climatic influence. Thirty-eight thousand hectares, 93,901.8 acres, are devoted to the wine culture in the Rhone district, but for several years past the crop has been extremely deficient owing to climatic and phylloxeric causes.

The department of the Isére has over 25,000 hectares, 61,777.5 acres, planted with vines, but the yield is very inferior in quality compared with other sections of this consular district. The best wines are called Porte-de-Lyon, Reventin, and Seyssuel, near Vienne, a little over an hour's distance by rail from this city. These are red

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wines and are not lacking in body, nor in fair taste, nor spirit, but have no aroma or flavor, and may be classed as very ordinary.

The total amount in value of wines declared for export to the United States, through the United States consulate at Lyons, as per table herewith transmitted, for ten years, *i. e.*, from 1870 to 1880, and for the first nine months of 1880, *i. e.*, from January 1 to September 30, was $429,560.05.

Previous to 1879 the majority of the wines from Côte d'Or were declared through the United States consulate at Havre, and consequently I cannot give all the figures of this export to the United States. They, however, doubtless may be had from the consul at Havre.

B. F. PEIXOTTO,
Consul.

N. B.—I beg to inclose other information which may be of service, &c.

THE WINE CROP OF 1880 *IN THE CONSULAR DISTRICT OF LYONS.*

LYONS, *October* 5, 1880.

The vintages are terminating in pretty good conditions in the vineyards of Beaujolais. The beautiful days which we have enjoyed up to the present, time have been most favorable for completing the maturity of the grape, and we can say to-day with certainty that the *quality* of the harvest of 1880 in Beaujolais will be one of the good years.

Moreover the prices already asked for the new wines are pretty high, *i. e.*, 125 to 150 francs for 214 liters, 56.44 gallons. For example, as to the quantity the totality of the harvest is pitiful.

We have just passed through Beaujolais, and we have collected information which permits us to give the present situation as it really stands. Shortly before, Mr. Roche, before the congress of viticulture of Lyons, exposed the fact that the condition of the frost during the winter and the phylloxera together have pretty nearly destroyed the vineyards of Beaujolais.

This estimate of the export reported was not exaggerated. One may judge by the following information taken at the places in question:

In the canton of Villefranche the six-tenths of the vineyards we considered to be completely lost; in the canton of Beaujeu the estimated vineyards destroyed is seven-tenths; and it reaches eight-tenths in that of Belleville; these three cantons, which, in fact, form the most important center of the production, the cantons of Anse, Bois d'Vingt, &c., forming the lower Beaujolais.

It is known that during the last winter the cold which lasted with excessive rigor in the lower regions was much less intense in the higher altitudes, and the "Courier de Lyon" made known some very curious facts experienced by Mr. André at the observatory of Lyons. In these conditions the only vines that have given grapes this year are those which lie in the altitude of 300 to 400 meters.

There the frost did not act, but, instead, the phylloxera exercised great ravages—in such manner that only one-third of the crop has been gathered; one-quarter, some even only two-tenths of an average production. As to the other proprietors, those whose lands are at lower altitudes, the production of their vineyards is counted as naught, and those that we know of having produced 100 pieces (barrels) usually, only obtained one this year.

Others who possessed 21 vineyards, *i. e.*, about 80 hectares, 197.688 acres, have only 21 barrels, that is $\frac{1}{150}$ of the average harvest, and we will not speak of other proprietors who have no harvest at all.

In one word, taken altogether, the production of the real Beaujolais does not reach this year the twentieth part of an average harvest.

If we add to this that two-thirds of the vines dried by the phylloxera, or frozen by the cold, have to be destroyed, and that since four months there has been no rain, which hinders agricultural work, one can have an idea of the sad situation of that country, heretofore so rich and fertile, and from whence the population are beginning to emigrate.

OCTOBER 12, 1880.

Very little is to be added to the foregoing estimate of the *récolte* (harvest) in the Beaujolais district; the vintages completed confirm the previsions above given.

I have stated the bad situation of the greater part of the wine-growers resulting from the harvest; the first ulterior information of my visit permits me to state that my first appreciation was not the least exaggerated.

In fixing the average of the harvest all over Beaujolais it will scarcely reach one-tenth of an ordinary crop.

Happily enough, according to the excellent condition of temperature under which vintage has been accomplished, wines, especially the latest, will be of good quality. Therefore prices will be kept very elevated, and, according to the pretensions of the wine-growers, little business has been done as yet.

At Villefranche prices seem to be fixed at 90 and 100 francs net per barrel of 214 liters, 56.44 gallons; at Beaujeu Quincié, Lantigné, St. Etienne, Chirouffes, prices are maintained from 110 to 120 francs.

In Revermont vintage is naught, or nearly naught, and the year of 1880 will be registered as one of the most fatal in the annals of wine-growing in this region so hardly struck in 1879 already.

The upper vineyards and the larger plants have given here and there some grapes, yet the lower vines are for the greatest part destroyed by the cold weather of last winter. Several proprietors have decided already to destroy them. In Revermont nearly the totality of the proprietors have given away the few grapes gathered to those wine-growers who make small wine of them.

In Maconnois the quantity is yet less than the estimated hopes; good quality also, but prices are unreasonable; a sale of new wine has been concluded in the commune of Saint Sortin, at the rate of 128 francs per 214 liters net.

At Salornay-sur-Guye, vintage, which began Saturday last, was completely terminated during the week.

The harvest of this year of this vinicultural region will be about one-eighth of an usual crop, and the quality will be, unfortunately, in proportion to the quantity.

It is known that Salornay is one of those localities which have suffered the most by hail. In Tournusois, one-fourth to one-third of the crop.

On the Chalonais side they have more reason to be satisfied. At Giory average vintage, very fine on the hill of Varanges. At Jambles more than one piece (barrel) per vineyard.

From Jambles to Saint Denis-de-Vaux more than one barrel per acre, (?) especially in the elder vineyards. The young vines gave but a middling result. At Rusilly very fine vintage, as well as at Cortiambles. At Saint Jean-de-Vaux satisfactory results; same observations for Saint Denis-de-Vaux. At Paris l'Hôpital and neighboring vineyards average crop, and wine will be of good quality.

From Dijon reports from the different vineyards state a more reassuring condition, and do not confirm the too alarming news which had been spread.

At Sautenay vintage began since eight days; also on the hills up to Beaune. In the superior vineyards or in the pineaux nearly 240 to 480 hectoliters per hectare are obtained.

For Mousseux wine 200 francs per vintage barrel are offered (*i. e.*, 298 liters of grapes), or 500 francs per the "queue" of wine, the queue equal to two pieces (barrels). As they do not let the vintage ferment to make Mousseux, and as the grape produces scarcely any wine, the wine-growers sell in vintage barrels.

B. F. PEIXOTTO, *Consul.*

Export of wines from the consular district of Lyons to the United States for the ten years from 1870 *to* 1879, *and for the first nine months of* 1880.

Years.	Francs.	Dollars.
1870	105, 494. 65	20, 370 46
1871	120, 263. 65	23, 210 88
1872	143, 370. 25	27, 670 46
1873	188, 513. 10	36, 383 03
1874	203, 354. 90	39, 247 50
1875	221, 627. 65	42, 774 14
1876	151, 013. 90	29, 145 68
1877	156, 906. 65	30, 282 98
1878	223, 268. 45	43, 090 81
1879	378, 326. 85	73, 017 08
First nine months 1880	333, 507. 95	64, 367 03

NOTE.—Previous to 1879 the majority of the wines of Burgundy appeared on the export lists of the consulate at Havre.

BENJ. F. PEIXOTTO, *Consul.*

OCTOBER 1, 1880.

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BURGUNDY WINES CONTINUED.

[Supplemental report of Mr. Peixotto upon the wines of Côte d'Or (Burgundy) and France, in general, crop of 1880.]

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Lyons, October 28, 1880.

The vintages are now terminated. They have in general been made under favorable circumstances. The quality of the wine is superior to that of last year, but the quantity is greatly inferior. The wine harvest will not exceed 25,000,000 of hectoliters. This is a difference of 23,000,000 hectoliters less than the crop of 1878, and a decrease of 30,000,000 hectoliters on the annual average for the past ten years.

This disastrous result may be attributed to the excessive cold of the winter of 1879–'80, which in many sections attacked even the wood itself; but it was principally to the phylloxera that the misfortune was due. Wine cultivators have redoubled their vigilance and energy in the struggle against the ravaging *puceron*. I have just seen the report of Mr. A. C. Déjardin, secretary of the commission on the phylloxera of the department of the Gard. It is rarely that a study has been more conscientiously and carefully made upon the means for destroying the insect and of reconstructing the vine. Submersion, planting in the sand, sulpho-carbonates, sulphur of carbon, American vines, all have been experimented by this commission. The report declares that sulphur of carbon has given the best and most conclusive results, but that it cannot be usefully employed or applied except to soils easily permeable to the stake (used in those circumstances to force the liquid to the roots of the plant), where the diffusion of the sulpho-carbonic vapors does not run the risk of being hindered by the clayish or sandy nature of the soil, and of which the good produce may authorize a considerable outlay of money. As to American vines, the Gard commission consider that they are the only means of reconstituting which can be employed in 60,000 hectares of the department. This testimony is in conformity with experience everywhere obtained in France.

The commission attach such great importance to their observations upon the American cepages that they publish a great table showing the minutest circumstances in the vegetation of twelve principal plants cultivated in their region, viz, the Clinton, Concord, Cunningham, Herbemont, Jacques, Morton's Virginia, Cynthiana, Riparia, Salonis, and the Taylor.

GENERAL REMARKS.

The sun shines upon upwards of 2,000,000 hectares (above 5,000,000 of acres) devoted in France to the wine culture, affording occupation to more than 7,000,000 of laborers, and producing as much some years as 75,000,000 hectoliters. This maximum has only once been attained, as I learn from my correspondent, Mr. Jules Regnier, one of the most experienced and intelligent wine-growers of Burgundy, owning some of the first vineyards of that rich region of the grape. It was in the year 1875. In 1869 the product was 70,000,000 hectoliters. The years 1847 to 1857 formed an exceptional series, of which the earlier years produced some of the finest vintages then known, while in the later ones the Oïdium played havoc with the vine. The product of 1854 was less than 11,000,000 hectoliters (the hectoliter is 22 gallons), and in 1855 little more than 15,000,000. The eleven years from 1863 to 1873 yielded 592,000,000 hectoliters, an annual average of 53,000,000; and, even in 1870, in spite of the war with Germany, attained that quantity. The vine covers more than 4½ per cent. of the surface of France, of which only ten departments produce no wine.

I have just received, and insert here, a circular issued by one of the largest wine-growers of Burgundy, Mr. Jules Regnier, upon the wine product of that district, and also some further statistics regarding the wine of the Côte d'Or.

BENJ. F. PEIXOTTO, *Consul.*

WINE PRODUCT OF THE CÔTE D'OR.

[Circular.—Translation.]

VINEYARDS AT VOUGEOT, JULES REGNIER, DIJON.

DIJON, *October* 31, 1880.

Almost immediately after the harvest the wine grower and the dealer bestir themselves to find among the wines of the preceding year, the type which is the nearest duplicate of the new product. It is, perhaps, difficult to arrive at this knowledge, and to foresee the results when one has found a resemblance between the new wine-

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and that already known to consumers, which experience has taught them to classify and appreciate. However, from almost forty years of experience with all the various products of the Burgundy vineyards, we are only able to vouch for two years wherein the results of the vintages were identical. Each year's product has its own particular characteristics, which enables a connoisseur to distinguish it from that of another year. The forces of nature tend to alter the particular peculiarities of any one brand, while, at the same time, they retain it in its special rank in the general classification.

The better wines of 1880 in the Côte d'Or are possessed, like their predecessors, with particular qualities, which will cause them to be appreciated without placing them out of the rank that they have heretofore occupied. Like the products of 1864, 1867, 1875, and 1876, to which they have a great resemblance as to quality, they will serve to compensate, in a measure, for the stocks of our previous good years, which are about exhausted. They have a moderate alcoholic body and degree, a good color, freeness of taste, and a bouquet which is advanced and promises early maturity. These are the most salient characteristics of the better wines (*vins fins*) of Burgundy of 1880, that is to say, of the *premiers crus*.

The vines did not suffer from the rigors of last winter, but unhappily, however, the severity of the spring caused the blossoms to fall off, but immediately after the flowering, and from the middle of July to the time of the vintage, the temperature has been favorable to the growth and development of the grape. The result of the harvest is about one-fourth of that of an average year for the entire district (Côte), a little less than this in the regions of the "*grands crus*," and much less at Beaune and in the immediate neighborhood.

In fact, we remark with satisfaction the continuing and good development of the wines of 1877 and of 1878, still in barrels, and of those of 1874, in bottles. The wines of inferior years follow after them in excellent order, and may, perhaps, be called for to supply their places when the market demand shall require it.

The prices of good ordinary wines remain high, not by reason of their good quality, but on account of their scarcity.

JULES REGNIER.

In the department of the Côte d'Or the surface planted with vines is nearly 33,000 hectares (hectare = 2 acres, 1 rood, 35 perches).

The average annual viticultural revenue of this department can be estimated at 40,000,000 francs. The maximum quantity of the harvest of wine is 2,089,000 hectoliters (hectoliter = 22 gallons). The minimum quantity is 368,000 hectoliters. Average quantity, 1,000,000 hectoliters.

The extent of the soil for the culture of fine wines of first, second, and third growth, red and white, from Sautenay to Dijon included, is 3,750 hectares, of which the average product per hectare scarcely surpasses 15 hectoliters.

The following translation of an article written by Mr. Paul Leroy Beaulieu, principal editor of l'Économiste Française, and a noted writer upon political economy, gives a very candid view of the present condition of the wine industry in France as affected by the phylloxera:

PRESENT CONDITION OF THE WINE INDUSTRY OF FRANCE.

THE PHYLLOXERA: ITS INFLUENCE UPON INTERNAL COMMERCE AND PUBLIC REVENUES AS VIEWED FROM A FRENCH STANDPOINT.

By Paul Leroy Beaulieu, *editor of l'Économiste Française.*

This terrible scourge which is now destroying our vines is known to all. After six or seven years of conflicts, studies, experiments, and official inquiries, we now almost despair of exterminating the microscopic insect. It is another illustration, or rather a new application, of the fable of the lion and the fly. The animalcule triumphs over the king of creation. The Academy of Sciences has not been able to do anything against it. The prize of 300,000 francs offered by the government has not stimulated the spirit of invention up to the point of discovering a remedy against the enemy. All the sulpho-carbonates, sulphurs, and insecticides have only proved to be but temporary restraints. Submersion, from which so much was expected, has resulted in many disappointments; for one case where it succeeds there are one hundred wherein there is failure. There remains still to be considered the American plants, the *Jacquez*, the *Herbemont*, the *Riparia*, &c. In these there is still the best resource.

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and in all probability the only one. During the last six or seven years the American plants have remained magnificently luxurious in the midst of French plants devastated and destroyed. We can attest this assertion from personal observation. But a great many years more will be required before we can restock our vineyards with these plants. In those departments where the American vines were first introduced, that is in Gard and Hérault, it is only the large proprietors who have made the trial, the smaller proprietors hesitating to follow in their steps.

Let us say, simply, that l'Économiste Française has already recommended in numerous articles the American plants as being the surest resource for the reconstitution of our vineyards, and that at this moment this view is the only one supported by experience. It is a great satisfaction to us to have indicated from the outset the only remedy which has been confirmed by seven or eight years of experiments.

That the phylloxera is an immense evil is incontestable. It is estimated that about 400,000 hectares (988,400 acres) of our vineyards have been completely destroyed, and that about the same number of hectares have been attacked and must succumb. This represents about one-half the area devoted to wine-growing in France. Besides, no vineyard, however isolated and remote it may be, whether concealed in the depths of a valley, or perched upon the top of a mountain, can be considered as safe from the sudden invasion of this insect, which multiplies by millions and is transported on the wings of the wind. In the valley of the Rhône and on the shores of the Mediterranean the advance of the phylloxera has been continuous and almost uniform in each succeeding year. Nevertheless there has been noticed a slight diminution in the increase of the insect in 1880, owing perhaps to the heavy rains which have prevailed in the Mediterranean departments, or to the fact that the insect has encountered an obstacle in the more luxuriant and resisting vines in the arrondissements of Béziers and Narbonne.

We know what has been the progress in wine-growing in France. During the reign of Louis Philippe the production was, on an average, about 30,000,000 hectoliters (792,000,000 gallons) per annum. The oïdium which appeared at the beginning of the empire, and which still remains, though we have since found the means of successfully combatting it, reduced the production to 10,000,000 hectoliters (264,000,000 gallons) per annum. The production then increased, and reached during the last years of the empire an annual average of 55,000,000 hectoliters (1,452,000,000 gallons). In 1869 the product amounted to 70,000,000 hectoliters (1,848,000,000 gallons), and would have been over 100,000,000 hectoliters (2,640,000,000 gallons) but for the phylloxera. In 1875 the product was 84,000,000 hectoliters (2,217,600,000 gallons), when Vaucluse, Gard, a portion of Hérault, and all the valley of the Rhône were devasted. Since then there has been a marked decrease, viz: the results being 42,000,000 hectoliters (1,108,800,000 gallons) in 1876; 56,500,000 hectoliters (1,491,600,000 gallons) in 1877: 49,000,000 hectoliters (1,293,600,000 gallons) in 1878; about 30,000,000 hectoliters (792,000,000 gallons). There is but little probability that during the next ten years, even with the most favorable climatic conditions, the average annual product will exceed 40,000,000 hectoliters (1,056,000,000 gallons), or not the half of the product of 1875. Indeed, it seems most probable that within three or four years the average anual production of wine in France will fall to less than 20,000,000 hectoliters (528,000,000 gallons); that is, less than one-fourth of the product of 1875, and about one-third of the average during the last years of the empire.

The changes in the price of wine are not less interesting than the figures relating to production. In 1840, according to an agricultural investigation made at that time, the average price of French wine at the place of production was 11.50 francs ($2.22) per hectoliter (26.4 gallons), or about 8.4 cents per gallon. The inquiry of 1852 showed the price at 13 francs ($2.50) per hectoliter, or nearly 9½ cents per gallon. At that time there were no railways penetrating the wine-growing sections, and internal freights were exorbitant. The proprietors in Hérault can remember when they sold wine at 5 francs per hectoliter, or a little more than 3¼ cents per gallon. According to M. de Foville the price of wine remained stationary from the time of Louis XVI up to the middle of the present century. After 1860 there was a great change. The perfected means of communication on one hand, and the freedom of commerce on the other, gave an enormous impulsion to the trade in wine. In 1862 a new inquiry showed the average price of wine at the point of production to be 28.50 francs per hectoliter, or 20.8 cents per gallon. In ten years the price had doubled. During the same period the average retail selling price had advanced from 35 francs ($6.75) to 50 francs ($9.65) per hectoliter, or 26½ cents to 36½ cents per gallon.

To-day the most ordinary quality of wine of the South is sold at the place of production at a little less than 30 francs ($5.73) per hectoliter, or 21½ cents per gallon, the price being three times greater than it was fifteen years ago, and six times greater than fifty years ago. Besides, the average retail selling price was 58.76 francs per hectoliter, or 43 cents per gallon, in 1877; 61.46 francs per hectoliter, or 45 cents per gallon, in 1878; and it must be very nearly 65 francs per hectoliter, or 47½ cents per gallon, at the present moment. If the average retail price has increased in a less

proportion than the price at the place of production it is owing, according to M. de Foville, to the increased means of transportation and to the diminution in freights. Certainly there is some truth in this explanation; but what appears to be most strikingly strange in it is the comparatively slow increase in the price of wine sold at retail. One of the municipal councillors of Paris, in a recent discussion, has explained the matter in a very suggestive and perhaps satisfactory manner by showing that in the Parisian wine shops wine is consumed at prices ranging from 60 to 70 centimes per liter (12 to 14 cents per 2.11 pints), when the wine itself, to be pure, should cost double that amount at the place of production, where at the same time the vines had been completely destroyed.

The price of wine at 60 to 70 centimes per liter is to-day impossible for natural wine sold at retail. In the Hérault district a hectoliter of the most common wine costs from 25 to 30 francs (18.3 to 21¼ cents) per gallon at the moment of the harvest. Add to this the cost of transportation and the octroi duty at Paris and this wine must cost nearly 60 francs; that is to say, 60 centimes per liter, or 12 cents for 2.11 pints, leaving out of the question the profits of the dealers and the intermediaries.

Happily France is not the only country which produces wine. The vine may be grown throughout the extent of one-half of the world.

Our country is the most devastated by the phylloxera, which also ravages Portugal and Spain, and commences to show itself in Italy. However, the insufficiency of our harvests can be compensated for by importations from abroad, provided that we count the cost. The evil which afflicts us is a temporary God-send financially to Spain, Italy, and Algiers, and in a less degree to Hungary. From being exporters of wines we are tending towards becoming importers. The quantities of this liquid that we import are exceeding greatly the quantities that we sell abroad, and notwithstanding the great reputation of our wines as to quality, our import of wines costs us more than we gain from our sales to foreign countries. These statements are borne out by the published official statistics of the commerce of France during the last nine years.

We can affirm that this movement will continue. Spain produces about 20,000,000 hectoliters (528,000,000 gallons) of wine per annum, and whilst the phylloxera is making great ravages in Andalusia, new plantations will doubtless increase the future harvests, which, in all probability, will reach 25,000,000 hectoliters (660,000,000 gallons) per annum. Italy, which still continues to hold her own, produces from 28,000,000 to 30,000,000 hectoliters (739,200,000 to 792,000,000 gallons) per annum.

It is hoped that in five or six years Algiers, if she succeeds in escaping the phylloxera, will be able to produce from 6,000,000 to 7,000,000 hectoliters (158,400,000 to 184,800,000 gallons) per annum. It would not be surprising if, in coming years, France should purchase from these countries, as well as from Austria-Hungary, from 15,000,000 to 20,000,000 hectoliters (396,000,000 to 528,000,000 gallons) of wine per annum, all things being equal. The French people in consequence will not be for some time to come reduced to the necessity of drinking pure water. Nevertheless the peasantry of our desolated districts are already reduced to this extremity, and when we reflect that formerly every one of them on an average drank several liters of wine daily, we may be able to comprehend that the privation is extreme.

It results from all which precedes, that the phylloxera, the cause of the ruin of so many individuals, and which has seriously affected and retarded the financial prosperity in many parts of France, has not succeeded in diminishing the receipts of the national treasury nor those of our railways. On the contrary, we believe that it has increased them. For many years we have made this assertion and it has been treated as a paradox. It is nevertheless an evident truth.

In the ravaged districts the cultivators and proprietors will drink less wine, but we know that our laws do not impose a tax upon the quantities consumed by the wine-growers themselves. Now, nearly everybody in the South was a proprietor of vines; even the workingmen drank wine grown by themselves which was not taxed. There was thus consumed, without tax, by the cultivators, from 10,000,000 to 20,000,000 hectoliters (264,000,000 to 528,000,000 gallons) of wine per annum. It is this consumption, most decidedly, which will be reduced. It will decrease, without doubt, by three-fourths or four-fifths as to the quantities taxed, which rarely, previous to 1877, exceeded in France 30,000,000 hectoliters (792,000,000 gallons); it is very probable that it will remain the same, in consequence of importations from abroad. But from an internal-revenue point of view, there will be this difference, viz, that the 15,000,000 or 20,000,000 hectoliters (396,000,000 or 528,000,000 gallons) of wine that France within several years shall be obliged to import, will have to pay not only the taxes of interior transportation, retail profits and octroi duties, but customs duties as well. If these latter duties should amount to 3 or 4 francs per hectoliter (26.4 gallons), this would be for 15,000,000 or 20,000,000 hectoliters (396,000,000 or 528,000,000 gallons), an increase of 50,000,000 to 80,000,000 francs ($9,650,000 to $15,440,000) for the national treasury. Let us say, however, for example, that the customs duty should be reduced to 2 francs per hectoliter. Thus will be verified our alleged paradox that the product of the taxes upon wines by the French Government will augment in spite of the phylloxera, or

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even, rather, by reason of that insect. We have already remarked in our Traité de la Science des Finances, that the tax upon beverages is more productive in the northern part of France than in the south.

The increased revenues will be most appreciated by the railway companies. The Compagnie de Lyon imagined that the phylloxera would seriously affect its traffic receipts, and it undertook at its own expense a great number of experiments with a view to successfully combat the evil. It is not less true, however, that its reasoning was not deep enough. The phylloxera will prove profitable enough to the Compagnie de Lyon, to the Compagnie de Midi, and to the Compagine du Nord de l'Espagne, and we may expect with confidence increased receipts upon these lines. The wine which will be supplied to Paris will come eventually from a distance—from Spain, Italy, Hungary, Algiers, and perhaps one day from America and Australia, and such a condition of affairs will continue for ten or fifteen years.

According to all probabilities the price of wine will continue very high until towards the end of this century, and after that it is possible that the price will descend lower than ever. For it is a fact that high prices prolonged during a great period will encourage, revive, and stimulate the culture of the vine in every country where the phylloxera has not yet made its appearance. When the countries ravaged by the insect shall have re-established their vineyards, whether with the American plants or by any other means, it will be found that the culture of the vine will have assumed an enormous development throughout the world, and that the production therefrom will have become superabundant. Twenty years at least must separate us from that time.

As pertinent to the foregoing remarks, and in continuation of the subject of the phylloxera, the following extracts from a recent report of Mr. Crawford, British consul at Opato, are subjoined. He says:

"In the year 1878 the destruction to vines caused by the phylloxera had aroused such general apprehension that the Portuguese Government thought fit to appoint a commission charged with the duty of studying scientifically the phenomena presented, and of providing a remedy. The commission obtained considerable powers from the government, and was abundantly supplied with funds for carrying on its labors. The following statements rehearse their labors:

"It is noteworthy that this parasitic insect has, as a rule, in all countries of Europe, caused most injury in those wine-growing centers, where most skill and attention are bestowed upon the vines, and that its visitations have been to some degree sporadic; passing, that is, over wide districts where the vine is grown, but not grown to the entire exclusion of other crops, to attack particular districts where the vines and wines are especially choice, and viticulture is the farmer's chief occupation. Furthermore, it is to be noted that the presence of the phylloxera was first recognized in those two countries of Europe which lie geographically nearest to North America, which is unquestionably the place of its origin. These two countries are France and Portugal. In both of these Western countries of Europe, the phylloxera made its appearance as early as the year 1863, and in the other vine-producing countries of Europe, only about t n years afterwards; while in Spain and Italy it did not appear, or at any rate was not discovered there, until within the last two years.

"The phylloxera was first discovered in the department of the Gard, in the southeast of France. Two years later, in 1865, it was discovered in the far west of France, in the Gironde, at Floirac. At present the phylloxera in France is nearly coextensive with the cultivation of the vine; 700,000 hectares, or 1,750,000 acres, are more or less affected by the parasite, and it is estimated that upwards of 300,000 hectares, or 750,000 acres, have been absolutely destroyed."

"The science of statistics," continues the consul, "is not so advanced in Portugal as in France, or figures would probably show an amount of destruction proportionally as great in the smaller as in the greater country.

"The insect whose ravages have decimated the vines of Europe, and seem likely to cause a revolution in one of the chief industries of the continent, is hardly visible to the naked eye.

"The phenomena presented, attacked by the phylloxera insect, have now been observed by a numerous body of scientific naturalists in all the wine-growing countries of Europe, and from the observations of these persons a very few facts can be culled sufficient for the purpose of showing that the actual cause of the disease is not in the original loss of vigor of vines subjected for several decades of centuries to an artificial cultivation, but is the phylloxera itself.

"1st. If the insect be introduced among the roots of a sound vine the plant presently exhibits all the symptoms of the phylloxera disease. In the Cognac district, in the year 1876, more than 150 healthy vines were planted in pots, and the insect phylloxera allowed to feed on them. Every single vine was smitten by the disease and eventually died.

"2d. In every case in which the insect has been removed from affected vines the vine has recovered.

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"3d. The disease has in no recorded instance existed without the presence of the phylloxera insect.

"More facts of this kind could easily be adduced, but these few, and the obvious deductions from them, quite suffice to prove that the phylloxera itself is the only enemy which the wine-grower has to contend with.

"This latest parasite of the vine was discovered for the first time in the winged state in America, in 1854, by Asa Fitch. What is now called the phylloxera disease in Europe appeared on this side of the Atlantic in 1863. The leaves were seen to grow yellow, and the plants to dwindle and decay in a manner that had never before been observed; but it was not till five years later, in 1868, that the disease was known to be caused by the insect allied to a species already known of the genus phylloxera, which feeds on the oak tree. In 1873 the French Government commissioned Mr. Planchon to go to America and investigate the habits of the phylloxera in the New World.

"He made the singular discovery there that, although the insect in America and on the continent of Europe are identical, in America it lives among and chiefly feeds upon the leaves of the vines, while in Europe it attacks almost exclusively the roots. Notwithstanding this striking difference of habit, it is almost universally held among men of science that the American and European insects are identical, and that the phylloxera of Europe has been imported from America among the vine slips brought over from time to time from that country.

"It has for some years been the endeavor of the governments of wine-growing countries to stay the progress of the phylloxera. They have offered large money prizes to the fortunate discoverer of an efficient insecticide of easy application. After a vast number of experiments there is an agreement of opinion among scientific and practical men to the effect that the sulphide or sulphuret of carbon is the drug most fatal to the phylloxera, and is of all the most easily and the most economically applied to its destruction.

"It is required that the insecticide to be used should be capable of sinking readily into the soil, as the phylloxera often lives deep down in the ground; that it should be hurtful to insect life, and yet not hurtful to that of the vine; that it should be so volatile as to diffuse itself through the soil laterally as well as downwards; and yet, that its vapor should not be so light as to ascend at once into the air. Finally, that it should be cheap. All these various conditions are united in the sulphuret of carbon.

"It is a liquid which vaporizes readily; its vapor is two and a half times heavier than atmospheric air; it is not hurtful to the plant life, except when applied in quantities more than are required to poison the phylloxera. It is a very energetic insecticide. Its price, delivered from England, is £2 per 100 kilos (220 pounds). This potent drug is applied to the diseased vine by means of an iron injector or syringe, whose pointed nozzle is inserted into the ground to a depth of about a foot. A subterranean dressing of the sulphuret is thus given over the whole extent of the vineyard. The injections are made on an average a little over a foot apart, and the instrument charged each time with six grams of the sulphuret."

The report of the Portuguese commission contains, also, a scientific appreciation of the means of meeting the insect-plague, recommended by scientific men, other than that of direct destruction of it; such, for instance, as the manuring of the vineyard, the substitution for the vines now under cultivation of varieties more capable of resisting the phylloxera than those which have fallen victims to it, an heroic pruning of the upper roots, and improved methods of cultivation, and, finally, they describe the measures to establish at Oporto a manufactory of the sulphuret of carbon for sale and distribution among farmers.

AMERICAN VINES MILDEW.

The vineyards in the Southwset of France which have suffered so much from the phylloxera are now being attacked by a new enemy; for mildew, which is believed to have been brought over with the American plants, has been found not only in the Cognac district, but all around Lebourne and Bordeaux. The mischief done is already very considerable, and M. Lesprault, a member of the commission appointed to report upon the phylloxera in this district, states that the disease is of a similar kind to that which affected the potato plant for so many years. It always shows itself on the inside of the vine leaf, its presence being made manifest by white spots varying in shape. On American plants they are always round and easy to detect, but in the French stocks they are so irregular that the discoloration is more difficult to detect. In both cases, however, the mischief done is the same; the leaves curl up

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and fall off before the grapes have ripened. Lime, sulphur, and ashes have been tried in vain, but sulphate of copper has done much good. Some French vines are less subject to the malady than others, although all of them are more affected than the American plants, which, however, produce grapes of an inferior quality. The same disease has made its appearance in the canton of St. Galle, in Switzerland, and, as no American stocks have been imported there, the germs of the disease are supposed to have been carried there by the wind. The Vigne Française states that the vintage of 1880 will be of good quality, but middling in quantity, in the Champagne, Burgundy, Beaujolais, and Bordeaux districts. At Béziers, Narbonne, and Perpignan the vintage will be excellent, rather above the average; indeed, in striking contrast to other districts in the South affected by the severe winter and the ravages of the phylloxera. Although this scourge still makes progress in Spain and Italy, the vintage in those countries is good, and the prices realized are above those of 1879. In Austria-Hungary both quantity and quality are under the usual standard, but prices are well supported.

I have been informed by several gentlemen from the Bordeaux district that although the American vine planted in French soil is liable to mildew, that the French vine-grower is well satisfied if he can save twenty-five healthy plants out of each hundred planted, as the twenty-five vines saved will produce more wine than one hundred French vines attacked by the phylloxera.

The resistance of the American vine to the phylloxera may be entirely attributed to the fact that the stock is healthier and stronger than the French, it having coarser root-fibers.

CHAMPAGNE WINES.

The wine of 1880 is not extraordinarily good, but better by far than the average crop, almost equal, in fact, to the wine of 1874, which was certainly the best in quality and also in quantity during the last decade; but the price for wine from all parts of the district, good, bad, and indifferent growths, has increased by more than one-half.

In ordinary years the common wines, used for mixing or marrying, as it is called, with the best, sold for 150 to 200 francs for 200 liters ($28.95 to $38.60 for 52.75 gallons). This year they are sought for at 700 and 800 francs ($135.10 and $154.40). As for the best *crus* (growth), Ay and Bouzy, used for giving flavor and body to the bulk of wine, their price is unprecedented. From 400 and 500 francs ($77.20 and $96.50), that they were a few years ago, they have risen to 1,750 francs for 200 liters ($337.75 for 52.75 gallons, or about $6.40 per gallon), and it is rumored that several merchants, being obliged to have the wine, have paid as high as 2,000 francs for 200 liters, or about $7.32 per gallon. Such prices have never before been heard of in the district.

The price of wine, however, remains the same as last year.

The consumption of champagne in America has steadily increased during the last three years, but the increase of this year is most remarkable, being nearly 40 per cent. in excess of the quantity exported during the same period of the preceding year.

The following table shows the value of wine exported to the United States since 1876, inclusive:

1876	$1,488,912 28
1877	1,293,398 45
1878	1,453,073 20
1879	1,694,732 81
1880	2,317,593 72

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The above statistics are furnished by Mr. Gill, United States consul at Reims.

The extraordinary advance in the price of the best *crus*, used for giving flavor and body to the bulk of wine, when taken in connection with Mr. Gill's statement that the price of wine remains the same, is very suggestive, and may be considered as circumstantial evidence of adulteration. Whether the facts presented lead to this conclusion or not is a matter to be determined by each American consumer of French champagne.

ADULTERATION OF FRENCH WINES.

Referring to that portion of the article of M. Beaulieu published in l'Économiste Française of the 14th of August, 1880, wherein he intimates that the wines sold in Paris must of necessity be impure, from the fact that wine, at the place of production, could not be bought for so low a figure as the retail selling price in Paris, I cannot but remark that he might very truthfully have made his statement much broader, and said that this adulteration is carried on not only in Paris, but throughout France. Believing this view of the case to be true, I determined, not only for my own satisfaction, but for the benefit of importers in the United States, to investigate the matter as thoroughly as possible, and to that end addressed letters to the different consular officers of the United States in France, asking information on the subject. Their replies, a synopsis of which I give below, fully corroborate the impressions that I had entertained.

Mr. L. A. Price, United States vice-consul at Bordeaux, says:

The following quantity of wine in wood (*vin ordinaire*), which is cheap wine, was imported during the year 1879:

	Liters.
From Spain	27,378,707
From Portugal	149,507
From Austria	32,290
From Italy	40,565
From Ottoman Empire	2,642

Common wines, in wood, imported the first growths, 1880.

	Liters.
From Spain	51,641,099
From Portugal	1,087,760
From Italy	1,408,494
From Austria	512,640
From Turkey	856,861

You can judge for yourself of the enormous increase from one year to the other.

The wine produced in this department is not sufficient to supply the demands from all countries, including even France, and the cheap wines from the countries mentioned evidently undergo the manipulation of certain wine merchants here, and are sold for consumption in France, or are exported to other countries under the name of Bordeaux wines, after sustaining the questionable practice of the Bordeaux cheap wine exporters, who mix, fix, flavor, color, and perfume them, adding water or alcohol as the case may require.

This fraudulent operation is carried on without any doubt, and even *sans gène*, what is called here *vin de cargaison*, cargo wine, exported largely to the South American republics, and to the United States, is generally mixed and "doctored" on the wharves or near the *midi* railway station where the wines from Spain and Portugal are discharged. It frequently happens that wine from Spain containing fuschine or other dangerous coloring matter is seized by the custom-house authorities, but it is difficult to say how much escapes their attention.

There are large establishments here which do nothing else but manufacture *vin de cargaison*, which is said to be a very profitable business, and has enriched many of these manufacturers.

It is impossible to obtain satisfactory explanations of the process employed for the manufacturing of these cheap wines.

Wine is frequently invoiced at less than 100 francs the cask (containing 300 bottles) and the cheapest pure Bordeaux wine costs at least about 600 francs the tun (4 casks) or pipe. Wine in bottles or cases is often invoiced at from 6 to 8 francs; the case and bottles alone are at a cost of at least 5 francs; you can therefore see what a slight margin is left for the liquid contained in these bottles which I have not the courage to call wine.

I could perhaps give you other interesting details, but, as you demanded only some few observations in regard to the foregoing, I limit myself to this.

Mr. Gould, United States consul at Marseilles, says:

I find that the imports of what is termed here ordinary wine amounted, for the year 1879, to 18,457,961 liters, coming chiefly from Italy and Spain. This year, during the first eight months, the figure has increased to 33,968,147 liters, of which 16,053,827 came from Italy, and 14,533,288 from Spain.

As the exports still maintain a higher figure than the imports, I am led to infer, without being able to give the statement for certain, that most of the imported wines from Italy and Spain, are exported, either in their pure state or mixed with French wines, as French wines of all classes.

Mr. Vesey, United States consul at Nice, informs me that the crop of the Alpes Maritimes is insignificant in quantity and very inferior in quality. Not more than 200,000 gallons are made in the entire province, not half enough for the ordinary consumption; and that about 1,500,000 gallons are annually imported from Italy, principally from the Neapolitan provinces, to make up the deficiency, and that no wines are exported from the Alpes Maritimes.

Mr. Rhodes, United States consul at Rouen, states in his annual report to the Department of State, under date of September 23, 1880, that—

The consumption of so-called Bordeaux and Burgundy wines continues to the same extent as when the grapes furnished a more plenteous yield and the present grape malady was unknown, and to meet this regular demand large quantities of Italian and Spanish wines are imported at Rouen and manufactured into French wines. This industry may be regarded as one of the most prosperous of the community. The foreign wines, after undergoing the necessary changes, are sold without exception as French wines, for home consumption as well as exportation; and they are manufactured with such skill that it is often difficult to distinguish the difference between the natural and the prepared wine.

It is said that the beverage thus prepared does not contain any deleterious ingredient, but this statement is difficult to verify, as the manufacturers do not reveal their secrets.

Mr. Lybrook, United States vice-consul at Havre, reports that he does not know of the practice of adulteration of wine to any great extent at that port. He further states—

The Italian consul does not know of the practice here, but at Rouen, a consular agency to his district, he says there are large importations, and, as you say, after the wines are "doctored," are exported as French "wines." * * * There was entered at the custom-house during the first nine months of this year 11,755,742 liters of Italian wine, 11,006,559 liters being entered for French consumption, the balance being in bond, to be reshipped. Of Spanish wines, 26,193,486 liters were entered, 26,189,210 being for French consumption.

Mr. Gifford, our commercial agent at Nantes, has furnished me with very valuable data on the subject of adulterated wines. In his first communication to me on that subject, he says:—

Very large quantities of cheap wine are imported into this district from Italy, Spain, Portugal, and Hungary, all of which is employed in making *what is called* Bordeaux. The imported article is very thick and unfit for consumption in its original state, but it is rich in alcohol. The greater part of it comes from Italy, but a considerable quantity which is shipped from that country is of Hungarian origin and passes into Italy by way of Trieste.

I am informed that the method employed here for making the false Bordeaux is to mingle the foreign product, which is contained in large casks holding 132 gallons, with the common white wine produced here, with water and a certain quantity of

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Bordeaux. The resulting mixture is inclosed in the ordinary Bordeaux cask containing 50 gallons, and sold for home consumption or exported as "Bordeaux wine." None of it, however, is exported directly from this district to the United States, but some part of it may reach that country from other ports, since no inconsiderable portion of the commerce of Nantes with the United States is carried on indirectly by way of Havre and Bordeaux. The only wine declared here for export to the United States is a very small quantity of what is called the champagne of Saumur.

The cheap imported wines above referred to may ordinarily be bought, as I am told, for 44 francs a hectoliter, so that the large cask of 132 gallons would cost about 300 francs, after paying the expense of transport from the country of their origin, and the customs and local duties. The 50 gallon casks of so-called Bordeaux sell here as low as 125 francs, less than a third of the price of the poorer qualities of the genuine article. When exported, however, the price is probably sometimes sufficiently increased to render its alleged origin more probable in the eyes of the purchaser.

Under date of October 23d, 1880, I received a communication from Mr. Gifford, as follows:

I send you herewith my notes taken in various interviews with wine merchants and others.

The information I have been able to glean in reference to the methods employed in the manufacture leaves much to be desired, the merchants being naturally reluctant to discuss the matter, and the opinions of others being mostly founded on conjecture. But I hope that in these two scanty notes you may find something which will be useful to you in preparing your report.

* * * * * * *

COUPAGE OF FOREIGN WINES IN FRANCE.

The practice of importing cheap wines from the south of Europe for the purpose of subjecting them to the process technically called *coupage*, or mixing with native wines and other substances, has been the result of the destruction of so many French vineyards by the phylloxera. This method of filling the great void suddenly made in the stock of an article of prime necessity in France has been used in some localities for several years, but so far as the ports of the Loire are concerned, it began with the almost total failure of the vines of the country, within the last three years. Before that time the importation of cheap wines from Spain and Italy was unimportant. In 1878 it amounted to over 200,000 gallons.

The manner in which the change from foreign to "native" Bordeaux wine is effected varies with the individuals engaged in the operation, and all wine merchants may now safely be embraced in this class, with the quality of the imported article employed, and with the grade of wine which it is intended to produce. As imported the Spanish wine is thick, very dark in color—sometimes almost black—and generally of 15 degrees of alcohol. The native wine of this part of France is of not more than from 6 to 9 degrees, and the *petit Bordeaux*, a common wine for consumption, which it is generally preferred to manufacture, is of about the same strength. Accordingly the merchant's first purpose is to reduce the quantity of alcohol, which is easily effected by mingling with the weaker wines of the country or with water. The last proceeding would seem to be rendered impossible by the extreme severity of the regulations touching the entry and transport of wines in France, and the constant surveillance to which it is subjected when taken out of bond. A dealer whose stock is found augmented, as it naturally would be by dilution with water, would be held to pay triple duties on the whole excess. But as certain grades of the manufactured wine, particularly that known as *vin d'equipage*, for the marine, sells as low as 80 francs a cask, it appears evident that some means or *coupage* even less expensive than mingling with the poorest wines must sometimes be resorted to.

The proper degree of strength having been secured, the question of color is solved by similar means. If the imported wine is very dark, a light colored wine is mingled with it in such proportions as to produce the color desired. The matter of flavor presents greater difficulties, and is of even more importance. But here begins the reign of mystery. This is one of the secrets of the trade which is not lightly revealed. The success of the *doctoring*, and its effects on the wholesomeness of the article produced, depend on the skill or the integrity of the operator. Drugs, as is well known, are freely employed in this commerce, but they are certainly not always or even commonly of an injurious nature.

For domestic consumption, at least, no pretense is ever made of manufacturing superior wine by *coupage*. It is simply the *vin ordinaire* of the restaurant and of the *table d'hôte*. It may be safely asserted that more than nine-tenths of such wine is the result of the mixing and sophistication above described.

It may be anticipated that this new branch of industry will receive an impetus on

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the Loire during the coming year, the late season having been again extremely unfavorable for the vine, and the peasant and workingman lacking once more their ordinary store of the white wine which they prize so highly. An attempt has been made here to introduce a white wine from Hungary, but with only moderate success up to the present time, as it cannot be obtained at satisfactory prices.

Mr. Nahmens, United States consular agent at Cette, has informed me that since the phylloxera has devastated the southern departments of France, the importation of foreign wine has increased to a considerable extent. During the last year 741,280 hectoliters have been imported, viz:

	Hectoliters.
From Spain	645,193
From Italy	90,843
From Hungary	2,645
From other countries	2,599

The first nine months of the present year show an importation of 1,467,220 hectoliters, viz:

	Hectoliters.
From Spain	1,243,635
From Italy	204,717
From Hungary	18,868

Which predicts an important increase for the whole twelve months.

A considerable portion of these imports are in transit for Paris, Bordeaux, Havre, Lyons, and some to Germany, Switzerland, and other countries. Another large part is bought up by the local trade to be blended with native wines, in order to improve the feeble qualities of the latter, and to give them more body and color. These mixtures, he says, are then suitable for the interior trade, and are, of course, sold as native produce.

The white wines are principally employed for preparations of Vermouth. The remaining part, finally, but the smallest, is destined for exportation either in its native state, under the original name, or blended with French wines in the manner mentioned above. As regards exportations to the United States, he intimates that some of these foreign wines undoubtedly find their way in some form to that country.

Only the sweet, dark wines from Spanish vineyards bordering upon the Roussillon, can be used to advantage in the imitation of the Roussillon port, being of the same nature, while all the Spanish white wines are too expensive to enter into the imitations of sherry.

The Italian white wines might perhaps be convenient for this purpose, but generally there is reason to believe that French products only are employed at present, unless to make quite cheap qualities. Currant wines or other artificial preparations, which have for a long time been shipped from Hamburg, may be substituted.

The following article from the Parisian of October 21, 1880, serves to strengthen the reports given above:

The wine crop of 1879 was about twenty-five or thirty millions of hectoliters below the average of the last ten years. The annual consumption in France is forty to forty-five million hectoliters. Everybody expected a rise in the price of wine, and some conscientious dealers laid in a stock from abroad. The rise in price, however, never came, and the markets remained well supplied. The reason was that the natural deficit was compensated for by artificial means. Wine was manufactured out of dry grapes. All the raisins to be found in the eastern ports were bought up, and wine manufactories sprang up all over the country. Around Paris alone there are seven steam-power wine-manufactories. The cost of a cask of raisin-wine is about 50 francs, and it was sold at 100 francs, thus giving a profit of an hundred per cent. But the competition has now become such that the price of raisins has risen from 12 francs to 75 francs the 100 kilograms. The consequence is that raisins have been abandoned and wine is now manufactured out of *glucose*, a sugary matter obtained from the po-

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tato, out of the residues of molasses, out of rotten apples, dried prunes, dates, figs, and all kinds of refuse fruit, and even out of beet-root. These abominable liquids are colored artificially, and *coupage* more or less with Spanish wines or white wine. The adulteration and manufacture of wine has attained such vast proportions that the principal dealers who had taken measures to supply the market loyally with harvest wine from foreign countries have taken steps to put a stop to the gigantic fraud. The imposture has reached such a pitch that not one-third of the wine now drank in Paris is real grape-wine.

In a communication from Mr. Catlin, late commercial agent at La Rochelle, he says:

It was a noticeable fact that enormous quantities of Spanish wines have of late been imported into France. There are lines of steamers between La Rochelle and the Biscay Provinces in Northern Spain that bring back deck cargoes of wine every trip, and Spanish *vin ordinaire* for table is already sold in La Rochelle, and finds considerable favor.

As to the adulteration I cannot say with any certainty, but I should say it is highly probable I have been told, too, that at Cette, on the Mediterranean, notwithstanding the tremendous diminution of the wine product by the phylloxera's ravage, the quays were never so crowded with full wine casks as last year.

In the same communication he refers to his report to the department, about a year ago, on the subject of the adulteration of brandies by the use of *trois-six* and alcohol. In this connection I will state, that I am informed by the consul at La Rochelle, Mr. Calhoun Wood, that he has been frequently applied to by dealers in brandy at that place for permission to have their invoices certified at Cognac, the reason being that adulteration has become so common at La Rochelle, or that the place has gained such a reputation that in consequence the price of their goods is seriously affected abroad.

An article published in Galignani's Messenger of April 30, 1880, upon the deficiency in the wine crop, says:

The extreme deficiency both in quantity and quality of last year's wine crop in France is strikingly shown by the falling off in the production of spirits distilled from wine and its residuum. In the first six months of the current agricultural year ending with March last, the total of such production in France was only 11,170 hectoliters, against 159,509 hectoliters in the corresponding period of last year, and 202,491 hectoliters in the first half of the agricultural year 1877–'78. In other words, there has been little more than one hectoliter distilled this year, from the fruit of the vine where there were fourteen last year and nineteen the year before. An inferior spirit, in every sense of the word, distilled from sugar, potatoes, and other substances is thus taking the place of pure brandy. At the same time a new impulse is given to the distillation of spirits from grain. Even before the failure of last year's wine crop this distillation of spirits from Indian corn was rapidly increasing. Thus in the year 1877–'78 the production of such spirit amounted to 166,028 hectoliters, and in 1878–'79 to 304,489 hectoliters—an increase of 138,561 hectoliters, or over 80 per cent. In the first half of the current year the production has been 148,917 hectoliters against 109,439 in the corresponding half of last year. * * * The result must clearly be to give a still more decided preference to whisky distilled from barley; and generally it is evident that if the transformation which the French spirit industry seems to be undergoing continues, French brandy must lose its reputation in the markets of the world. French distillers are sensible of this, and some of them are founding distilleries in Spain. The final result of phylloxera and bad seasons thus promises to be an advantage to Spanish wine-growers.

Many of our people will for some time to come buy French wines, being attracted by their names, which were formerly a guarantee for their purity; but the real connoisseur has undoubtedly ere this discovered their deterioration, and will, if wise, buy our native product instead of the abominable mixtures now exported to the United States.

JOSEPH S. J. EATON,
Consular Clerk.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Paris, December 1, 1880.

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COUNTERFEIT AMERICAN MANUFACTURES IN GERMANY.

REPORT BY CONSUL STANTON, OF BARMEN.

Herewith I have the honor to forward a copy of a letter received by me from Mr. William Walscheid, of Solingen, Rhenish Prussia, bearing on the question of American imports into Germany. I also transmit some comments on Mr. Walscheid's letter, together with a few suggestions as to the best manner of introducing articles of American manufacture into the German market, and of protecting them when there against German imitations.

Mr. W. Walscheid to Mr. Stanton.

SOLINGEN, *November* 3, 1880.

MY DEAR SIR: I am in receipt of your esteemed favor of the 29th ultimo, wherein you request my opinion and experience respecting the importation of American novelties, &c., into Germany; and I have much pleasure in submitting my views herewith.

Having spent some ten years in the United States, I kept, on my return to Germany, my relations with the former country, and have interested myself in the introduction of American goods into Germany, and have, since 1873, succeeded in finding a market for the empire wringer, pitchforks and handles, lawn-mowers, Chicago, Niagara, and Owasco starch, mouse-traps, egg-beaters, jars, brooms, mats, &c., and am now negotiating for Amberg's letter-filing cases.

I have to contend with a mean competition which, imitating American novelties in inferior qualities, even adapting the American name and trade-mark, generally ends in underselling me, after all my trouble in introducing an article into the German market. French imitations are bad enough, but are yet more respectable than the German ones, for they append to the American inventor's name the word "system," whereas the Germans omit this acknowledgment and style their bogus manufactures "Root's blowers," "Singer's sewing-machines," "empire wringer," &c.

The whole Düsseldorf exhibition in the machinery line—Krupp's excepted—was an imitation of American ideas, and contained nothing original.

It would be advisable for American manufacturers to form an association with an office in Germany for the protection of American interests, similar to the "English Trade-mark Protection Society," whose secretary, Mr. John Storey, 18 Kings street, Cheapside, London, can furnish all particulars.

Any article in my line of business I would introduce and import into Germany. If you name the articles I am always ready to give you the benefit of my experience as to style and the manner in which the business should be done.

Stoves and furniture I am unable to import, and I am unable to advise how such a trade could be done.

For agricultural implements I can recommend Messrs. F. & W. Weinstock, of Bonn, Rhenish Prussia.

Dry goods, cloth, trimmings, cutlery, &c., manufactured in this country, are largely exported to the United States, and the interests of merchants lie in the export and not in the import trade, wherefore it is difficult to find the person who is honestly interested in the import of American goods.

You are at liberty to use my views and opinions in any way you think proper.

With the assurance of my particular consideration and esteem, I remain, my dear sir, yours, very truly,

WM. WALSCHEID.

SUGGESTIONS TO AMERICAN IMPORTERS.

The preceding letter is a reply to a note of mine, requesting Mr. Walscheid's views on the best manner of increasing the American import trade.

Before expressing my opinion of Mr. Walscheid's letter, I wish to state that the import trade in this district is attended with unusual dif-

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ficulties, from the fact that almost every branch of manufacture is here thoroughly well developed, and the interests of the whole community center in the export trade.

In districts where trade development is confined to a few staple articles, the introduction of one or the other class of foreign wares is more easily accomplished; but when this development is so manifold as to embrace in the iron, woolen, silk, linen, and cotton branches nearly every article made; when, in short, the several textile and metallurgical industries are so advanced as in this district, it is a matter of the greatest difficulty to introduce any article of foreign manufacture.

Consequently, American imports have as yet in this district been in the main confined to agricultural products, petroleum, and goods of a like nature.

The difficulties attending the import of articles of American manufacture are amply exhibited in Mr. Walscheid's experience. Mr. Walscheid, a most respectable merchant of Solingen, the German Birmingham, is, from his practical knowledge of both Germany and America, peculiarly fitted to take up the American import trade, his sympathy with American ideas guaranteeing an honest effort being made in every case. As stated in his letter, he has, since 1873, succeeded in introducing wringers, pitchforks, lawn-mowers, starch, mouse-traps, sad-irons, washboards, brooms, &c., but a competition in counterfeit American wares causes him much trouble and annoyance.

The main points of his letter are the German imitation of American goods and his suggestion of an American trade-mark protection society, as a means of shielding American manufactures from German imitators.

The imitation complained of is widespread, and takes possession of every novelty introduced into the German market, and it must be patent to every one that the sale of inferior imitations must gradually bring the American name into disrepute. In this latter respect, the German imitators have been ably seconded by many American manufacturers, who have, either through neglect or willfulness, failed to maintain their original standard of excellence. Stoves, lawn-mowers, sewing-machines, pitchforks, sad-irons, and the thousand and one American novelties which find a market in this country are all counterfeited, and these imitations are invariably sold as being genuine American goods. In every newspaper German firms announce the sale of American articles, which are, in almost every instance, the product of German industry. In the case of the Empire Wringing Machine, the infringements have been of so flagrant a character as to call for the intervention of the law.

The style and make of the American pitchfork is so well imitated that the import of this article is now in the main confined to the hickory and ash handles.

The success of such firms as the Trenton Lock Company, Stuart & Mattson, American Lock Company, &c., has induced a number of German merchants to organize, last month, in Berlin, a stock company under the title of "The German-American Lock Manufacturing Company," with a capital of 700,000 reichsmarks. This company, which is American in everything but its projectors, has, with an unbroken field, every chance of success—a success to be derived from the judicious application of American ideas, and gained at the expense of the American trade.

Is there no way, it may be asked, of overcoming these obstacles to American trade in Germany? Mr. Walscheid suggests the formation of an American trade-mark protection society, and the suggestion is doubtless good. It is, however, a reserve power, which could only be

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availed of after previous action has been taken; and as this action is, in almost all instances, neglected and not taken, I append what I consider the course to be pursued by all manufacturers doing an import trade with Germany.

First. Every article introduced into this market should be protected, either by a patent, the registration of a trade-mark, or the registration of a pattern or shape. A patent is easily obtainable, continues in force fifteen years, with a fee increasing annually, 50 marks for each successive year. The fee of the registration of a trade-mark is 50 marks, to which comes the cost of publication, or about 10 marks. The registration of a pattern or shape costs, for a single, or a packet, at the most, 50, patterns, 1 mark for one year; for two years, 2 marks; for three years, 3 marks; for from four to ten years, 3 marks for the first three years and 2 marks for each following year and for every pattern. From eleven to fifteen years the cost is for each year and pattern as follows: 3 + 14 + 3 marks, or for one pattern for fifteen years 32 marks. It will be seen, therefore, that, excepting for a long patent, legal protection can be obtained for a merely nominal sum for any article of American manufacture.

Second. American manufactures should maintain a standard of unvarying excellence. This, I am sorry to say, is not always the case, and I have personally heard many complaints as to the uncertain quality of preserved meats and vegetables.

Third. American manufactures should be sold at the lowest possible rates, the object at present being more to obtain a firm footing in the German market than to realize large, though temporary, profits at the expense of a future trade.

Fourth. I consider the establishment of one or more general depositories of American manufactures as a measure absolutely essential to a rapid introduction of American wares into Germany. I made this suggestion some two or three years ago, and I believe that every consul on the continent has, at one time or another, made the same suggestion. This uniformity of opinion should have some weight with the exporting community, though as yet but little attention has been paid to it.

The community at large are averse to purchasing unknown articles from illustrated catalogues and laudatory advertisements; besides which the difficulties attending a direct purchase, such as distance, loss of time, uncertainty of delivery, cost of transportation, customs duties, &c., deter many from making an experiment which they would in many instances make were the opportunity offered them on German territory.

The organization of a society, having for its object the establishment of large depots for the exhibition and sale of articles of American manufacture, and the protection of the mutual interests of its members, seems to me to be a perfectly feasible plan, and one which must infallibly tend to increase the demand for American manufactures. The persons in charge of such depots would soon be thoroughly acquainted with the wants and taste of the public, and would by a personal knowledge of the purchaser's commercial standing, be in a position to grant with safety such credit as is requisite to the transaction of business in Germany.

In the matter of credit, German merchants are extremely exacting, it being in this district the custom for manufacturers to accord purchasers nine to twelve months' credit. Such credits could not well be granted by American manufacturers in a community but superficially known to them, whereas the proposed plan, by affording them better

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information, would enable them to offer advantages now precluded by a due regard for their own interests.

The German retail trade is transacted in an exceedingly small way, being split up into multitudinous branches unknown in America; the dealers are persons generally of small means and narrow views, and enjoy neither the social standing nor possess the intelligence of the same class in the United States. It is but natural, therefore, that they as a class wait for but do not create a demand for any article.

The establishment of large wholesale depots would, I am convinced, by affording retail merchants unusual facilities in choosing and replenishing their stock, and also by enabling them to carry a large assortment at a minimum price, give a great impulse to American trade.

EDGAR STANTON, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Barmen, November 26, 1880.

PETROLEUM TEST IN GERMANY.

REPORT BY CONSUL GRINNELL, OF BREMEN.

Referring to that portion of my dispatch No. 46 of October 27 relating to petroleum, I have to report that while the decision as to the burning test to be adopted by the imperial government (and below which no oil will be admitted into Germany) has not yet been promulgated by Prince Bismarck. The superior council, which reports to him, has, after hearing the arguments of a delegation of Bremen merchants, recommended as perfectly safe the burning test which answers to our present 110° Fahrenheit. It is considered almost certain that the minister of commerce will adopt their recommendation, and thus, while the consumption will not be decreased by an enhanced price, and our producers will not be forced to change their mode of refining, the oil henceforth must be fully up to 110° F., while, as I am credibly informed, during the past year and a half scarcely any of the oil certified to in the United States as being 110° F. reached that standard; and large quantities have entered here showing no higher test than 100° F., 96° F., and even 90° F.

American refiners have only been spared large reclamations by the plan of selling here upon American certificates and refusing to give any guarantee whatever, and thus the loss has been thrown upon the thousands of small consumers throughout the empire. Hereafter the oil will be examined by government experts, and none allowed to enter Germany which is below the fixed standard.

WILLIAM F. GRINNELL, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Bremen, January, 1881.

POISONOUS TOY-COLORING IN GERMANY.

REPORT BY CONSUL WINSER, OF SONNEBERG, ON POISONOUS TOY-COLORING IN GERMANY AND THE LAW FOR THE SUPPRESSION OF THE SAME.

On the 19th of May, 1879, a law was passed by the German Parliament which prohibits the use of poisonous pigments in the painting of toys, under severe penalties upon conviction of any violation of its pro-

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visions, even going so far as to authorize the police to summarily close any establishment in which a delinquency might occur. Before the passage of this salutary law the toy-makers of Germany were under no legal obligations, in catering to the amusement of children, to employ only innocuous paints in decorating their wares, and it is to be feared that, as a general fact, in the effort to please the eye and to gratify infantile taste for bright and dazzling colors, the moral obligation to produce perfectly harmless playthings was often forgotten. Hitherto, as a rule, the more brilliant hues have contained the more deleterious pigments; and although the reported instances of child-poisoning by paints taken into the mouth from toys have not been remarkably frequent, there can be no doubt, nevertheless, that the health of children has been often endangered and a life has been occasionally sacrificed by the use on the part of the toy-makers of poisonous compounds in painting their wares.

This law prohibits the use of all colors in toy-decorating which contain an admixture of arsenic, copper, lead, quicksilver, bismuth, antimony, tin, zinc, and the chrome acids; and, in spite of the dissatisfaction which it has caused among the toy manufacturers, it cannot be regarded in any other light than that of a public benefit. Indeed, even now there appears to be a reaction in favor of the law on the part of the toy-makers themselves, who at first deemed that their interests had been harshly and unreasonably attacked by the stringency of its provisions, which deprived them in an instant of a majority of the pigments that had long been considered indespensable in the decoration of toys. At the outset, the most strenuous efforts were made by the toy-makers to secure a modification of the law, to the extent of allowing the use of colors in themselves poisonous, but to be rendered harmless by compounding them in small quantities with perfectly innocuous ingredients. It was urged that in a very large variety of toys the use of colors containing poisons might be permitted for priming, to be covered with a coating of varnish which would render the poisons absolutely harmless, and that there should be some discrimination shown at any rate as between those toys which a child would be likely to bring in contact with its mouth, a doll for instance, and the infinite variety of other toys upon which poisonous paints might be used without any danger whatever.

These and other kindred points were presented by the Chamber of Commerce and Industry at Sonneberg to the Government of the Duchy of Saxe-Meiningen in the most forcible terms, in the name of at least thirty-seven thousand persons who are engaged in the business of toy-making within the limits of this consular district alone; and like arguments, with a view to obtaining a modification of the law, were made to the Governments of Saxony and Bavaria in behalf of the twenty-five thousand toy-makers of those kingdoms, making an aggregate of sixty-two thousand persons who believed that their means of existence were seriously threatened by the sweeping provisions of the law as applied to their business.

The authorities listened with due sympathy to these appeals, but were inexorable, however, in their determination to uphold the law. Nothing remained, therefore, for the toy-makers but to diligently seek substitutes for the prohibited colors. The Chamber of Commerce and Industry at Sonneberg, ably supported by the Government of Meiningen, has been especially active in this direction for many months past, and a list of colors has recently been published, stamped with the approval of the Chamber, as being perfectly free from poisonous compounds, and already sufficiently large to compensate for the loss of those which

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have been prescribed. The pain s named in the list embrace 3 kinds of white, 11 of red, 6 of yellow, 8 of green, 2 of violet, 4 of blue, and all are guaranteed from the factories as containing no particle of poisonous compound, having been subjected to thorough analyses by the official chemists of the duchy.

Additions will be made to the list from time to time as the paint factories succeed in making new colors in compliance with the conditions in question.

The manufacturers and dealers of the Sonneberg consular district have undertaken to deliver no other colors to toy-makers of their acquaintance than those named on the list published by the chamber of commerce; and in every case a sale of pigments must be accompanied with a certificate by the manufacturer or dealer to the effect that the colors sold may be used in toy-making.

The result of this guarantee will be that prosecutions for the use of poisonous colors will be against the supplier of the colors, and not against the users of them, provided thatthe latter confine their purchases of materials to the manufacturers and dealers designated by the chamber of commerce. It is further required that all manufacturers and dealers who desire to sell their colors within the Sonneberg industrial district shall send samples in duplicate, with certificates as to the component parts of their pigments, and these will be reanalyzed before approval.

HENRY J. WINSER, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Sonneberg, December 17, 1880.

AGRICULTURE IN BAVARIA.

REPORT BY VICE-CONSUL HUMMEL, OF MUNICH.

The Government of Bavaria intending to reform the present system of taxation, a statement has been prepared by the statistical office and laid before the chamber concerning the land cultivated in this country and the average value of the harvest, of which statement I have the honor to present herewith a translated extract.

CROPS IN BAVARIA AND THEIR VALUE.

The following statements of the area of cultivated land in Bavaria, and the value in money of the agricultural and other products thereof, taking the average of the eight years, 1871 to 1878, were published by the royal statistical office attached to the ministry of the interior, department of agriculture, trade, and commerce:

Products.	Area cultivated.	Gross value of produce.
	Acres.	
Wheat	737, 722	$19, 594, 172
Rye	1, 435, 568	24, 970, 000
Barley	790, 380	15, 819, 161
Oats	1, 085, 475	16, 239, 960
Spelt	240, 385	3, 266, 560
Potatoes	696, 416	30, 653, 615
Hops	57, 284	14, 337, 393
Vineyards	58, 098	878, 770
For producing garden vegetables	89, 127	1, 298, 078
For turnips, beet-root, rape-seed	1, 231, 317	10, 855, 515
Other cultivated ground	1, 219, 889	.....
Meadows	3, 078, 091	93, 853, 136
Pastures and commons	581, 920	2, 715, 963

Of woods and forests there are in Bavaria 6,179,812 acres, of which 2,083,785 belong to the government. The value of the average gross production of the government woods amounted to $6,778,908 a year in the above-named period. That of the private woods is computed at $13,324,852. This gives a total annual value of agricultural produce in Bavaria of $247,827,108, not including (*a*) the value of the seed for corn and potatoes; (*b*) the value of the straw; (*c*) the produce of orchards; (*d*) value of substances taken out of the ground (peat, sand, clay, &c.).

The expenses of production are calculated, as accurately as possible, to amount to $131,435,780, which would leave a clear net profit of $116,391,328 of the whole ground used in Bavaria for agricultural purposes and liable to pay ground tax. This latter tax yielded, in the period mentioned, about $2,750,000 annually. The ground appears to be taxed with 2¼ per cent. of the said net profit.

The accounts of the government show that the 2,083,785 acres of wood belonging to it cost annually 44 per cent. of the gross receipts from them.

WILLIAM HUMMEL,
Vice-Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Munich, December 17, 1880.

INTERNATIONAL MACHINERY FAIR IN BRESLAU.

REPORT BY CONSUL DITHMAR.

The International Machinery Exhibition, held annually in Breslau, which has been mentioned several times in my reports, will, the coming June, offer an unusual opportunity for introducing to the inhabitants of this province and of the contiguous territory—Austrian and Russian, as well as German—all descriptions of machinery, implements, utensils, and useful inventions generally.

The Silesian Industrial Exhibition, for which preparations on a large scale are now making, will be open during the summer, and it is probable that the combined attractions of this exhibition, the machinery fair and the wool market—the two latter occurring the second week in June—will be sufficient to fill the city to overflowing with visitors interested in manufactures, agriculture, and the mechanic arts.

Applications for space in the machinery fair, together with a list and description of the goods to be exhibited, must be sent in before the 1st of April next. No prizes are given, the fair being essentially a market for the exhibition and sale of all goods entered. Among the articles comprised in last year's catalogue, many of them of American origin, were all varieties of agricultural implements, wagons and carriages, safes, scales, hemp and wire ropes, steam engines and boilers, steam and hand pumps, asphaltum products, roofing materials; distillers', brewers', and dairymen's apparatus; sewing-machines, builders' ware; garden decorations; drain-pipes, ventilators, tile and metal; bath-tubs, refrigerators, grindstones, burr mill-stones, lamps, furniture, household utensils, stained glass, decorated porcelain, architectural models, park and garden bridges; carpenters', blacksmiths', and other mechanics' tools; bells, sail-cloths, hempen and rubber hose, and hand fire-engines, fountains, metal and terra-cotta vases and figures, stoves and grates, mantels, brick-making machinery, bottling apparatus and corks, guns, pistols, and implements of hunting and fishing, stable fixtures, saddles, bridles and harness, aquaria, Venetian blinds, washing-machines and mangles, bird-cages, dentists' chairs, windmills, steam coffee-roasters, sail and row boats, barometers, surveying and surgical instruments, portable gas-works, tiles, turbine water-wheels, &c.

Steam-plows, portable engines, and threshing-machines are among

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the most prominent articles usually exhibited, and these have all been of English make. Should any American manufacturers be willing to incur the expense of entering into competition with these, they will probably be able to secure the requisite space at the ensuing exhibition, by addressing "W. Korn, Oekonomie-Rath, 6 Matthias-Platz, Breslau, Germany," who will furnish plans, programmes, and all information. A superiority of the English over the American threshing-machines is claimed here, on the ground that the former are built stronger and heavier, thresh more rapidly and cleaner, while at the same time sorting the grain in three different sizes and preserving the straw.

The following are the average prices brought by the English engines and threshers in England and here:

PORTABLE ENGINES.

	In England.	In Breslau.
4 horse power	$750	$857
5 horse-power	825	952
6 horse-power	900	1,048
7 horse-power	975	1,142
8 horse-power	1,050	1,238
10 horse-power	1,200	1,420
12 horse-power	1,400	1,595

THRESHING-MACHINES.

3 feet 6 inches	$625	$702
4 feet	700	786
4 feet 6 inches	750	833
5 feet	800	896
5 feet 6 inches	850	952

The English manufacturers of agricultural machinery, who find the home market, already overstocked, contracting from year to year, are of course compelled to seek a foreign market for their manufactures. The American, on the contrary, with the constant expansion of the grain-growing area, finds an ample market at home, and perhaps does not care to incur the expense of establishing agencies and repair-shops abroad, or to build machines to suit the exigencies of a different climate and a more frugal husbandry.

One English house here sold during the present year, in addition to several steam-plows and a large number of minor articles, 27 threshing-machines, 20 portable engines, and 3 traction-engines.

HENRY DITHMAR,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE, *Breslau, December* 27, 1880.

PRUSSIAN CIVIL SERVICE.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL LEE, OF FRANKFORT-ON-THE MAIN.

A Prussian who aspires to a career in the civil service of his country begins his course of preparation at an early age. First, he must complete the studies of a gymnasium, comprising nine different grades or classes, in each of which he must remain one year. At the end of each

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year he must undergo a searching verbal examination in the various branches he has studied during that year. When the entire course has been concluded he is subjected to a general examination as to the course in the presence of certain government officials. This is called the examination of the *Arbiturienten*, and is the stage at which the scholars quit the gymnasium for the university, or for practical life. Those who are successful in this ordeal receive a certificate authorizing them to aspire to a government career.

The next step is a course of study in a German University, generally lasting three years, and comprising law, diplomacy, history, and political administration. To have completed the studies of a gymnasium is not indispensable to admission to the university, but it is indispensable to admission to a political career.

Having finished his University course, the student undergoes an examination before a board of government officials, and if he is successful receives the title of referendar. In that grade he receives no compensation, although he may be employed in the courts or the bureau of provincial government. The referendar continues his studies for, say, two years, awainting permission to undergo examination for the position of assessor. This term has a peculiar technical meaning, and designates the civil service aspirants who are prepared and eligible to be appointed to positions in that service. Admission to examination for an assessorship depends on the discretion of the minister, who is expected to be guided in his judgment by considerations as to the age of the applicant and the priority of his claim. When the applicants are numerous, admission to the examination may be delayed for several years, to the great disadvantage of young men of slender fortune who are obliged to maintain themselves respectably in society, although receiving no pay. Once admitted to the grade of assessor, however, the candidate enters upon his civil career, provided there may be vacancies where he can be employed. If there are no vacancies, and no bureaus having extra employment to offer him, then he must wait. Preference is given in appointment to those who have first passed examination, but men of special intelligence and capacity receive promotion, as a rule, more rapidly than those of inferior ability.

Compensation in the civil service is never high, but socially it outranks all other professions or pursuits. Young men admitted to the service generally marry well in the financial sense of the expression, although they may be themselves impecunious. Some four years ago a learned and distinguished professor (Dr. Rudolph Ihering, of Heidelberg) wrote a book designed to prove, scientifically, that the daughters of rich merchants are destined, in the natural order of things, to marry lawyers and civil-service officials, and that daughters born of such marriages are destined to marry merchants with a view to acquiring wealth wherewith to endow their daughters in turn for marriages into the civil service.

The salary of an assessor in employment ranges from 1,200 to 1,500 marks a year, but he is expected to find his chief satisfaction in making for himself an honorable career, relying mainly upon his accidental fortune for the rest. If he has capacity he may be reasonably sure of promotion; although as to that, length of service is considered. An old public servant who discharges his duties reasonably well will always be preferred to the most capable and industrious beginner, however much the latter may excel in natural talent.

Promotions and removals of civil service officials are made by the ministers or chiefs of bureaus, removals being subject to the decision

of a court of discipline established for the purpose of examining as to conduct of inculpated officials.

Persons admitted to the assessorial rank are by no means the only ones employed in the civil-service bureau. There are, besides, numerous clerks and subordinates who perform office work and who are never promoted to any important position. Such persons pursue a routine life, and have no career offered them. Their compensation varies from 500 to 2,000 marks per annum, out of which meager pay they manage to educate their children and live in tolerable comfort.

The governing element in Prussia, as may be inferred from the foregoing sketch, is a special class, professionally trained. It is also an exclusive class, enjoying the highest social prerogatives. Theoretically, the humblest person may rise to the highest place, but that can only occur through the prescribed channel, with its circumscribed chances and conditions. The lower routinists and employés rise never. For special talent, self-help, and self-education, born without fortune, and deprived by accident of the opportunities for customary schooling, the chances are meager. The fault of the system is its routinism and want of flexibility. Virtually it establishes a governing aristocracy, to which, theoretically, all it is true have a chance to be admitted, but which is an aristocracy nevertheless. Personal merit, subject to ministerial discretion, governs in its promotions, and promotion is reasonably sure to those who deserve it, but no merit, however great, whose acquired qualifications have been secured in another than the regular way, need aspire to its positions.

On the other hand, the system secures a good average of competency, especially for routine work; it allows but little opportunity for wealth or family connections to influence appointments; it requires that removals, except of chiefs of departments and bureaus, shall be for cause only; and it secures the incumbent absolutely in his position during good behavior.

ALFRED E. LEE,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Frankfort-on-the-Main, November 22, 1880.

THE CIVIL ESTATE OF PRUSSIA.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL LEE, OF FRANKFORT-ON-THE-MAIN.

First in the order of mention in the civil estate of the Prussian Kingdom is the ministry of the royal house and court, which is directly attached to the royal and imperial house, and comprises:

1. The office of the herald.
2. The house of royal archives.
3. The court chamber of royal estates.
4. The bureau of royal and princely family entails.

Next to this ministry come all the various charges, offices, and persons forming the imperial and royal court, including the masters of ceremony, physicians, the private chancellors and archivists of the Emperor, and the superintendents of the royal theaters.

Adjunct to the imperial courts are the courts of the empress and

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queen and those of the crown prince and princes, and successively of all the members of the imperial and royal house.

Of special importance among the foregoing functionaries stand those comprising the secret cabinet of the Emperor for civil affairs, which is under the direction of the Secret Cabinet Councillor Wilmowski, and reports directly to the Emperor.

The secret cabinet of the Emperor for military affairs is co-ordinate with the civil cabinet just mentioned. Its director is General von Albeydell. These two offices form the centre of the whole civil and military service of Prussia.

Foremost among the civil bodies is the council of state, which was created by a royal order of October 27, 1810, and reconstituted by royal order of January 12, 1852. According to decree of March 20, 1817, this council consists of the following members:

1. The princes of the imperial and royal house as soon as they have reached the age of eighteen years.
2. The presidents of the ministry of state, the field marshals, the ministers of state in office, the chief president of the supreme tribunal, the chief president of the supreme chamber of accounts, the secret cabinet counsellor, the chief of the military cabinet, and the commanding-generals and governors of the various provinces during their sojourn at the capital of the Kingdom.
3. Other officials expressly designated by the King.

The ministry of state comprises the following departments and chiefs, respectively:

1. Foreign affairs, Prince Bismarck.
2. Commerce and industry, Prince Bismarck.
3. Vice-president of the ministry, Count Stolberg-Weringerode.
4. War, General von Kameke.
5. Interior, Bötlicher.
6. Treasury, Bitter.
7. Public works, von Maybach.
8. Public instruction, von Puttkamer.
9. Agriculture, Dr. Lucius.
10. Justice, Dr. Friedberg.

The ministerial office or bureau is directed by an under secretary and two counselors.

It may be remarked here that the ministry of state is supposed to be destined to be reconstituted by replacing the ministers by simple secretaries of state, the object being to secure greater uniformity and harmony of action.

The civil bodies directly subordinate to the ministry of state are:

1. The central directory of geographical and topographical measures. In this body, which is personally directed by Field Marshal von Moltke, each ministry is represented by a deputy. All public improvement projects must be submitted for its inspection and approbation.
2. Court for the decision of competency conflicts. Regulated by decree of August 1, 1879. Consists of a president and three members.
3. Court of discipline for non-judicial officials. Controlled by law of July 21, 1852. Adjudges as to conduct of officials, and has the power to force them to retire for misbehavior. Consists of one president and ten members.
4. Courts for the adjudication of church questions. Constituted by law and decree of May June, 1873. Its decisions final. Comprises one president and ten members.

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5. Supreme court of administration. Has jurisdiction of questions of public right.

6. Examining commission for higher administrative offices. Aspirants to such offices appear before this commission. A president and four members.

7. Literary bureau of the state ministry.

8. Office of the official advertiser of the kingdom.

9. Compilation of the laws.

The president of the ministry of state, in addition to his other functions, superintends also:

1. The general commission as to royal insignia and orders.

2. The state archives.

The ministerial president is also chief of the ministry of foreign affairs, in which function he is represented, when absent, by the secretary of state. The foreign office comprises the following subdivisions:

1. Under the immediate supervision of the secretary of state, and occupied only with the higher foreign policy.

2. Directed by one of the counselors. Occupied with matters pertaining to ceremonials, orders, insignia, art, science, and church administrations.

3. Managed by a director. Supervises affairs of commerce, trade, the consular service, and various other matters. The embassies and consulates have recourse to this bureau.

The *personnel* of the foreign office comprises fifteen counselors, mostly persons of great eminence, besides additional officials of high rank.

The sekretariat comprises sixteen high officials, and the bureau for dispatches five. The commission for the examination of aspirants to the diplomatic service is under the immediate supervision of the chancellor of the empire.

Prussia maintains eight embassies at other German courts, viz, Baden, Bavaria, Hamburg, Hesse, Oldenburg, Saxony, Saxe-Coburg, and Würtemburg.

The present chief of the department of finance is State Minister Bitter. The department comprises the following subdivisions:

1. The national budget, managed by a director, who is supported by seven counselors, three assistants, fifteen confidential secretaries and calculators, and six confidential registers.

2. Administration of direct taxes, managed by one director, four counselors, one inspector-general, two assistants, nine confidential secretaries, and six confidential registers.

3. Administration of indirect taxes and customs, managed by one director, seven counselors, and one assistant. The bureau of accounts is attached to this division. Its work is performed by about sixteen officials.

To the finance department belong also the direction of public lotteries, of coinage, and of the bureau known as the *Seehandlung*, originally established by Frederick the Great for the purpose of promoting commerce on the high seas.

The department of public instruction and medicine, created by former Kings of Prussia, received its present organization from the decree of November 3, 1817. By later decrees the management of church affairs in the old provinces has been given to the supreme church council and to the consistories. The department comprises the following subdivisions:

1. Ecclesiastical affairs.

2. Public instruction.

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3. Medicine, including a scientific medical deputation, and a technical commission of pharmacy. A building-bureau is also subordinated to this division.

Attached to this department are also—

1. The Royal Academy of Sciences, at Berlin.
2. The Royal Academy of Art, and all the numerous establishments connected with it at Berlin and in the provinces.
3. The Royal Museums.
4. The National Gallery of Painting.
5. The Rauch Museum of Sculpture.
6. The scientific establishments at Berlin, including library, observatory, and botanical garden.
7. The Astrophysical Observatory, near Potsdam.
8. The universities.
9. The technical and industrial schools.
10. The examining commissions.
11. The seminaries for teachers of higher schools.
12. Schools for teachers in the gymnasia.
13. The Royal Porcelain Manufactory, at Berlin.
14. The Museum of Industrial Art.
15. The Charity Hospital, at Berlin, with its school for male and famale nurses.
16. School for experts.

The ministry for commerce and industry was established in its present form April 1, 1879. Owing to his relations to the secretaryship of state, no provision is made for the salary of the minister. To the purview of this ministry belong—

1. The technical deputation for industry, established by decree of December 16, 1808, having for its object the advancement of industrial knowledge.
2. The gauge office, to which all similar offices in the provinces are subordinate.
3. The schools of navigation.

The ministry of the interior embraces the following bureaus:

1. The central statistical commission.
2. The statistical bureau and meteorological institute, of which the eminent Dr. Engel is director.
3. The presidency of the police of Berlin, whose central bureau exercises political, press, and corporation surveillance.

The ministry of justice has for its adjuncts—

1. The justiciary examining commission.
2. The various provincial judiciaries.

The ministry of war comprises several general departments, and a large number of bureaus subordinate to each. The higher departments comprise chiefly those of general military affairs, military economy, invalids, and pensions, inspector's, quartermaster's and medical departments, and the military schools. The scope of this ministry covers the whole field of military administration, and embraces a vast system of complex official machinery.

The ministry of agriculture, forests, and public domains classifies its functions into the following three grand divisions:

1. General agricultural affairs and horse breeding.
2. Supervision of the public domain.
3. Supervision of forests and hunting grounds.

The first of these divisions comprises the following bureaus:

1. College of agricultural economy.

2. Technical deputation for veterinary service.
3. Central commission as to moors.
4. Higher agricultural court.
5. Agricultural credit institutions.
6. The agricultural high-schools.
7. The veterinary school in Berlin.
8. Horticultural institutions.
9. Horse-breeding establishments.

The ministry of public works embraces the following departments:

1. Mines and mining.
2. State railways.
3. Construction of public works.
4. State supervision of private railways.

The supreme evangelical church council administers the affairs of the state church in the eight old provinces of the monarchy. Various religious societies in foreign countries are also within the scope of its supervision.

A supreme chamber of accounts in Potsdam examines and revises the accounts of the whole civil service.

A commission for the public debt exercises control of the administration of the public debt, in accordance with a law of February 4, 1850. It comprises three members from each of the three legislative bodies of the kingdom. The president of the supreme chamber of accounts also belongs to this commission.

The house of peers (*das Herrenhaus*) and the house of deputies (*das Haus der Abgeordneten*) share the authority of the ministers, whose administration is exercised throughout the country by means of the provincial authorities, at whose head in each province stands a chief president (ober-president), who is the chief executive officer of his province.

For *East Prussia* the chief presidency is at Königsberg, and is administered at present by Dr. von Horn, whose office is supplemented by a provincial council, which exercises advisory power, and shares in the enactment of provincial laws and decrees. Two members of this council are named by the state; the remaining ten are chosen by a provincial committee, whose members are elective.

Within the purview of the chief presidency belongs the administration of—

1. The schools.
2. The medical college at Königsberg.
3. Provincial taxes and custom-houses.
4. The minor provincial governments.
5. The district councils.
6. The district courts of administration.

Petitions, and other papers pertaining to the amelioration of provincial affairs, are addressed to the chief president personally. The courts have recourse to the ministry of justice, at Berlin. The highest court in the province is the oberlandesgericht, at Königsberg.

Of *West Prussia*, the chief presidency is at Dantzig, and is at present filled by Mr. von Ernsthausen. The provincial organization corresponds precisely to that of East Prussia.

Brandenburg.—Chief presidency at Potsdam, and now filled by the minister of state, Dr. von Achenbach.

Pomerania.—The highest official in this province is the Statthalter (governor), who is at present the Crown Prince of Germany and Prussia. The chief presidency at Stettin is administered by Counselor von Münchhausen.

Posen.—The chief presidency at Posen is administered by Counselor Guenther.

Silesia.—The chief president, whose office is at Breslau, is Mr. von Seydewitz.

Saxony.—Chief presidency at Magdeburg; chief president, State Minister von Palow.

Schleswig-Holstein.—Chief presidency at Schleswig; chief president, Mr. von Bötticher, who has just been named for secretary of state at Berlin. This province has no provincial council.

Hanover.—Chief president, Mr. von Leipziger; office at Hanover. No provincial council.

Westphalia.—Chief president, Mr. von Kühlwetter; office at Münster. No provincial council.

Rhine Province.—Chief president, Dr. von Bardeleben; office at Coblenz. No provincial council.

Hohenzollern Countries.—These territories are governed by a president, who resides at Sigmaringen, in Southern Germany.

Hesse-Nassau.—Chief president, Baron von Ende; office at Cassel. No provincial council. Under the administration of the chief president are the following:

1. Provincial school-college at Cassel, and the scientific and other schools in the province.
2. Medical college at Cassel.
3. General tax commission at Cassel.
4. Provincial tax direction at Cassel.
5. Provincial governments at Cassel and Wiesbaden.

By way of illustrating the machinery of the minor provincial governments, which are nearly always the same, a sketch may be given of that of Wiesbaden, whose chief officer is a president, with whom is associated a council (kollegium), whose functions are divided into three classes:

1. For the interior.
2. Churches and schools.
3. Direct taxes, public domains, and forests.

Each of these departments is under the management of a director, while general affairs are administered by about 30 counselors and 9 assistants.

There exists besides, at Wiesbaden, a college for agricultural affairs.

The jurisdiction of a minor provincial government is subdivided into landrathsaemter, of which there are twelve subordinate to the government at Wiesbaden.

Among the other subdivisions are those of the royal police offices, of which there are five principal and many smaller ones in the Wiesbaden district.

The same jurisdiction comprises a supervision of the district physicians and surgeons, the local veterinary service, the district building authorities, the chambers of commerce, the prisons of the districts, and the mayoralties of the cities of Wiesbaden and Frankfort-on-the-Main.

The president of the ministry of state in Prussia receives a salary of 36,000 marks ($8,568), and is provided with a residence free of cost. The under secretary of state and the first counselor receive each 20,000 marks ($4,760). The total amount paid in salaries to this ministry is 384,000 marks ($91,392).

The business of the Prussian foreign office being transacted by the imperial chancellery, Prussia pays in this behalf a round sum of 90,000 marks ($21,420) to the Empire. The imperial ministers receive each a salary of 36,000 marks ($8,568) and a free residence.

There are in the civil service of Prussia eleven chief presidents, with a salary each of 11,400 marks ($2,713); one president of the finance directory, with a salary of 10,500 marks ($2,499); one government president at Stralsund, with 8,400 marks ($1,999); ten government vice-presidents, with 9,300 marks ($2,213); one director of the administration of direct taxes, with 8,700 marks ($2,071); 385 chief government counselors, with 4,200 to 6,000 marks ($1,000 to $1,428).

The chief and government presidents are provided with free residences; in the other cases an extra stipend in lieu of residence is paid, amounting to from 1,800 to 2,400 marks ($428 to $571), according to the rents prevailing at the place of abode.

The chancellor of the Empire receives a salary of 54,000 marks ($12,852).

ALFRED E. LEE,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL.
Frankfort-on-the-Main, November 22, 1880.

TRADE OF SAXONY WITH THE UNITED STATES.

REPORT BY CONSUL MASON, OF DRESDEN.

Agreeably to instructions contained in section 380 of Consular Regulations, I have the honor to report that the commercial relations between the Kingdom of Saxony and the United States remain without material change since my last report.

The number of invoices authenticated at this consulate for the last four quarters is 1,255 as against 1,626 for the twelve months preceding, and the value of goods exported aggregate $960,044 as against $962,966 for the twelve months preceding.

I am hopeful of a gradual introduction of American wares and manufactures, but it must be slow. The people here are very conservative, and are generally satisfied to let well enough alone, and follow the footsteps of their fathers.

Trade here is much better than at this time one year ago, but there is general complaint, though not so loud and universal as then. The taxes are increasing yearly, and the cost of living is more expensive annually, quite as much I should say as in the United States. The immense army is the cormorant that devours the proceeds of all labor and toil. But still, Dresden seems to flourish and prosper; splendid buildings are being erected on all sides, although there are hundreds of cottages unoccupied in every part of the city, and my impression is that these edifices are going up merely to afford a safe, rather than a profitable, investment.

Many Americans will spend the winter here, and hundreds have visited Dresden during the summer and fall. In the fashionable quarters, in shops, galleries, and all places of amusement, one is astonished to hear quite as much English spoken as German, the attractions of this beautiful and interesting capital drawing the *élite* and wealth of England, Russia, Poland, and smaller delegations from the other countries of Europe.

Referring to circular of Department of State of April 3, 1879, I would remark, no official meteorological observations are taken in this consular district.

JOS. T. MASON, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Dresden, October 6, 1880.

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ROUMANIA—ITS PRODUCTS, INDUSTRIES, AND COMMERCE.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL SCHUYLER, OF BUCHAREST.

ROUMANIA AND THE ROUMANIANS.

The preparation of this report, imperfect as it is has been attended with no little labor and pains, in consequence of the incorrectness of published statistics and the difficulty of obtaining information from the public offices. For the statistics of the port of Kustendjé I am indebted to the kindness of the envoy of Great Britain.

Roumania proper, as at present constituted, comprises the two provinces of Wallachia and Moldavia, and forms a sort of great crescent bounded on the exterior by the Danube and the Pruth and on the interior by the Carpathian Mountains. To this has been added since the treaty of Berlin a portion of the ancient Turkish province of the Dobrudja, to the south of the Danube, so that the mouths of the Danube are now either in or contiguous to Roumanian territory. The population of the Dobrudja has considerably decreased during the war. It is now estimated at about 107,000. Roumania proper, although it contains numbers of Hungarians and Germans who have immigrated from Transylvania, generally speaking is inhabited by a homogeneous race speaking the same language. The population at the last census in 1859 was 4,424,961, and is now estimated at 5,500,000. The province of Bessarabia, belonging to Russia, and the Bukovina, annexed by Austria in the last century, are entirely Roumanian in population. In Transylvania and several districts of Hungary the Roumanians form more than two-thirds of the population. Including these, the Roumanian race would represent a number of about nine and a half millions. All these countries form part of what was the ancient Roman province of Dacia, and the Roumanians claim to be descended from the Roman legionaries and colonists. They are, in all probability, descendants of the ancient races which became Latinized by contact with Rome. Their language, though Latin in form, possesses peculiarities common to all the languages of the Balkan Peninsula, and derived from the aboriginal inhabitants, while two-fifths of its vocabulary is Slavonic. The Roumanian race, with merits mingled with defects, has one great quality, persistence—as will be seen not only by the way in which it has held its own, although the country was for many years subjected to rival powers, but by the manner in which its colonies have increased and spread, both on the mouth of the Danube, and on the side of the Carpathians. There still exist, too, among the mountains of Greece, Thessaly, and Epirus many men of the same race, generally known as Kutzo-Wallachs.

Government.—The government is constitutional on a very liberal basis, with two elective chambers and an hereditary prince. Its domestic character, however, does not entirely prevent arbitrary measures, and the passport decrees which were put in force less than a year ago are the most rigorous and annoying in Europe. The restrictions thus placed on the movements of foreigners are obstacles to free commercial intercourse.

ROUMANIAN AGRICULTURE.

Area and products.—The total area of Roumania, exclusive of the Dobrudja, is 29,650,000 acres. The country is divided into three zones

—the first or forest region of the Carpathians, which includes much good pasturage, even up to the summits of the mountains, where the population is scanty; the second, the uplands devoted to pasturage, vineyards, and fruit-orchards; and the third, the rich valley of the Danube, where cereals and colza are grown. The soil of this latter part is very rich, nearly similar in nutritious properties to the celebrated "black earth" of Russia. Less than one-half of this area is under cultivation or in pasture. Of the remainder, 5,000,000 acres are covered with forests, and nearly 10,000,000 acres are waste land. All of this is not unfit for cultivation. Irrigation, and dikes to prevent the overflows from the mountain streams, would render much more land fit to be tilled. Labor, however, is scarce, especially at harvest time; the population is too small for the country, and many of the proprietors have larger estates than they can properly work.

Landed proprietors.—By the rural law of 1864 the serfs were freed and were granted lands taken from their ancient masters. About one-third of the estates were thus taken and were distributed among about 600,000 families. The proprietors were indemnified by the state, which assumed the indebtedness of the peasants and gave thirty years in which to pay it off. The total number of proprietors, including peasants, would now amount to about 650,000. The average sizes of the peasant property is from 10 to 15 acres. The size of the larger estates varies much; there are two or three of as many as 75,000 acres and over; but 4,000 to 5,000 acres would not be uncommon. There is nothing between these large estates and the peasant properties except a few medium properties in Moldavia of from 250 to 600 acres. By the confiscation of the property of the church, which had gradually obtained possession of much of the best land in the country, the state became possessed of a very vast domain. This it is gradually selling off to the peasantry on very easy terms—one-third to be paid down, 6 per cent. interest and 6 per cent. sinking-fund to be paid annually on the other two-thirds, so that the debt can be extinguished in twelve years. The amount still in the hands of the state is about 3,850,000 acres, of which about 2,630,000 acres are cultivable, 1,084,000 are forest lands, and the remainder are marshes, pools, &c. This domain is rented by the state, but when the lands cannot be rented they are worked on account of the government.

Status of foreigners.—Foreigners were formerly not allowed to purchase lands, but this right has now been given, by treaty, to the subjects of several European nations. The Jews, however, are still prohibited from holding rural properties. The constitution forbids the colonization of Roumania by foreign races, but this is not held against Italians, Spaniards, or others of the Latin race.

Working the land.—Few of the large proprietors work their own lands, except in Moldavia. The lands are either farmed out on short leases—a disadvantageous system, because the farmers try to make the most out of the land in the shortest possible time—or, what is the general habit, worked by the peasants on the *metayer* system. The peasants also frequently hire additional land from their proprietors (in some cases they have even purchased it) and form associations for the purpose of working the land on a co-operative plan.

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Crops.—In 1873, the latest year for which we have any statistics, the cultivated land in the principality was divided as follows:

	Acres.		Acres.
Maize	3,196,000	Potatoes	1,000
Wheat	2,480,000	Kitchen and market gardens	455,000
Barley	880,000	Coltza	220,000
Rye	259,000	Hemp	13,000
Oats	248,000	Flax	6,000
Buckwheat	11,000	Tobacco	5,000
Millet and small grains	226,000	Vines	255,000
Dry vegetables	250,000		

Average production.—The average annual agricultural production of Roumania is estimated as follows:

Maize	bushels.	42,397,000	Coltza	bushels.	1,184,000
Wheat	do...	28,543,000	Beans and lentils	pounds.	18,672,000
Barley	do...	10,059,000	Potatoes	do...	51,378,000
Rye	do...	3,029,000	Hemp	do...	4,985,000
Oats	do...	1,543,000	Flaxseed	do...	1,683,000
Millet	do...	2,507,000	Tobacco	do...	1,978,000
Buckwheat	do...	177,000	Wine	do...	35,000,000

Methods of cultivation.—The principle of the rotation of crops generally prevails in Roumania, it being usually maize, wheat, and fallow; but there are many farms where the land is never idle, but is under constant cultivation, with a succession of wheat, oats, barley, and millet. If beans, lentils, or pease are grown, they usually precede the wheat crop, as they are supposed to leave the land in good condition. Although in general the methods of agriculture are the most primitive, yet there is a tendency, especially among the larger proprietors, to introduce machinery and improved implements. Indeed, I am told by persons of experience that the farmers are, in this respect, far more open-minded to the advantages of new machines and new methods than in almost any European country. This subject has been treated fully in a special report to the Department of State, dated September 28, 1880.*

Owing to the imperfect methods of cultivation, the great amount of seed used, the wasteful sowing, and the total neglect of manure and fertilizers, the product per acre is not as great as it should be.

Cost of production.—An idea of the returns per acre of the chief crops may be formed from the following table, made up from the statistics of 1872, which was a fair year. Since that time neither the seasons nor the prices have been favorable to farmers.

Crop.	Cost of labor.	Total costs, including seed, &c.	Proceeds.	Profit.
Wheat	$6 18	$9 61	$15 47	$5 86
Barley	6 18	7 66	10 05	2 39
Rye	6 18	8 12	15 20	7 08
Maize	7 25	7 65	23 77	16 12
Oats	6 18	7 76	16 11	8 35

In the above table the rent, or the interest on the land, is not given.

Land value and taxation.—The average value of good arable land in

* For this special report, see Consular Reports for November, 1880 (No. 2), pp. 170–173. See also note on preceding page.

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Roumania may be considered at about $24 per acre. It has risen since the institution of the *Crédit Foncier*, by which loans can be obtained at a lower rate of interest—7 to 8 per cent., when formerly 12 to 16 per cent. was demanded. The renting value of farming land is on the average $1 an acre, although some land would rent as high as $3 per acre. In addition to this there is a land tax of 6 per cent. on the revenue estimated generally on the rent, besides the road taxes and poll taxes. On one of the large estates here, for which I have seen the calculations, the taxes are estimated at less than 6 cents per acre, and the interest on the investment at $2.04 per acre, reckoning at 7 per cent.

If, therefore, we deduct from the preceding figures $2.50, more than 10 per cent on the average value of land, for rent, taxes, and interest (a very large estimate), we shall have a fair idea of the profits of agriculture as an investment of capital.

Maize.—It will be seen that maize forms one of the great staples of Roumania. Not only is much exported, but it furnishes to the peasantry their chief article of food, usually in the form of a thick porridge or of a half-baked bread, called *mămăliga*.

Exports of agricultural products.—The following table will show the chief exports of agricultural products from Roumania for the year 1879:

Articles.	Value.
Wheat	$16,218,000
Rye	1,445,000
Maize	13,579,000
Barley	3,032,000
Other cereals	357,000
Farinaceous vegetables	1,343,000
Wheat flour	647,000
Coltza	1,653,000

Note by the Department.—In Consul-General Schuyler's report of September 20, 1880, and published in the November number of the Consular Reports, page 171, the quantity of cereals exported from Roumania in 1879 were given as follows:

EXPORTS.

Articles.	Quantity.
	Bushels.
Wheat	991,000,000
Rye	132,500,000
Maize	1,244,760,000
Barley	333,693,000
Other cereals	39,367,000
Farinaceous vegetables	39,400,000
Wheat flour	23,750,000
Coltza, &c	59,900,000

This is such a gross overestimate that its publication in that number of these reports was as unaccountable as its insertion in the first place in a report from an official usually so correct as Consul-General Schuyler. Strange to say, the table was repeated in the present report, bushel for bushel, but of course was struck out by the Department. Not having had time to receive a correction from the consul-general, the department assumes that the quantity exported should have been given somewhat as follows:

	Bushels.
Wheat	9,910,000
Rye	1,325,000
Maize	12,447,600
Barley	3,336,930
Other cereals	396,670
Farinaceous vegetables	3,940,000
Wheat flour	237,500
Coltza, &c	599,600

Wine products.—The cultivation of the vine, which grows wild in Roumania, is rapidly increasing in importance. Considerable improvement has been made in the method of culture by the great proprietors, and certain of the wines are excellent—the white wines of Dragashaori and Cotnari, and the red wines of Odobest and Dealu-Marè. There is also a very good wine called mischet, which preserves the aroma of the Muscat grape without its sweetness.

In 1873 there were 1,593 communes where wine was produced. The vineyards covered 252,147 acres, and belonged to 181,045 proprietors. The maximum value of an acre of vineyard (district of Prahova) was $185.28, and the minimum value (district of Mehedintsi) was $9.63, the average being $15.63. The average expense of cultivation was, up to the vintage, $10.49 per acre; at the vintage, $1.85 per acre. The maximum production of wine per acre was, at the foot of the hills, 906 gallons; on the hillsides, 334 gallons; on the hilltops, 220 gallons.

Some of the Roumanian wine is exported as Hungarian or Rhine wine. The total export in 1879 amounted to $240,000.

Pasture lands.—The pasture lands are generally covered with native grass, which is better in the uplands. Some experiments have lately been made with foreign grasses, lucerne and clover, which have given excellent results. The hay crop frequently suffers from the prolonged heat and droughts. There are estimated to be 6,284,000 acres under pasturage, and the average crop is estimated at about 2,000,000 tons of 2,000 pounds each.

Domestic animals.—According to the only statistics available the number of domestic animals in Roumania was as follows in 1860 and in 1873:

Description.	1860.	1873.
Horses	506,104	426,859
Asses and mules	7,635	6,734
Cattle	2,660,089	1,842,786
Buffaloes	91,079	44,204
Sheep	4,819,900	4,786,317
Goats	423,077	194,188
Swine	1,088,737	836,944
Bee-hives	301,615	305,316

The diminution in the number of domestic cattle is owing partly to the increased amount of land taken from pasture for cultivation, and partly to increased exportation. The exportation and importation of living animals in 1879 were:

Description.	Export.	Import.
Horses	4,016	14,663
Mules and asses	392	100
Cattle	30,654	4,006
Sheep	200,899	15,786
Swine	153,607	812

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The exportation of animal products amounted in all to about $3,000,000, and including—

Meat	$30,000
Milk, butter, &c	749,000
Skins	943,000
Wools	883,000

Although the conditions for the breeding of animals are very favorable in Roumania, not so much attention has been paid to this branch of rural economy as is desirable. More care is bestowed on the breeding of animals in Moldavia than in Wallachia. The Roumanian horses are small, quick, and support great fatigues, but have not great drawing power. They are seldom used in agriculture, except in places for treading out the grain, for flails are almost unknown in Roumania. The small gray cattle and the buffaloes are generally used for field labor. The buffalo is thoroughly acclimated in Roumania, and is of great service to the peasants, but as he is very sensitive to heat, and requires to bathe once or twice a day, he can only live in special conditions.

Honey and wax of Roumania.—At one time the honey and wax of Roumania were famous throughout the East, but api-culture has greatly fallen off of late years, although both the climate and the flora are very favorable to its development. The raising of silk took a great development from the year 1852 to 1864, but prices of silk having lowered, and diseases having appeared among the silk-worms, the production has fallen almost to nothing.

The Dobrudja.—The Dobrudja, which has an area of 3,690,000 acres, contains a very great quantity of arable land. In the Turkish times its productivity was great, but since the war very many of the Mussulman inhabitants have left the country, including, fortunately, all the Circassians, and the greater portion of the country is now uncultivated. In order to prevent improper speculation by means of fictitious claims and forged title-deeds, or even by just title-deeds obtained for almost nothing from fugitive Turks, the government has taken momentary possession of all unoccupied lands, and will make provisions for their colonization. In general the Dobrudja is looked upon as of far greater value than the three districts of Bessarabia which were ceded to Russia.

Agriculture.—A considerable aid to agriculture has been found in the *Societé de Crédit Foncier Roumain*, which was instituted in 1873 for the purpose of granting loans to landed proprietors. Up to that time no land-owner could borrow money without paying 12, 14, and even 18 per cent. interest; to day he can get it for 7 or 8 per cent.

There is in Roumania a ministry of agriculture, commerce, and public works, and under its charge are an agricultural school and a pomological school at Ferestreu, near Bucharest, as well as a factory school for the manufacture of agricultural machines at Jassy, four large nurseries of fruit and forest trees, a model stud at Nucetu, besides agricultural lectures in the seminaries, agricultural exhibitions, and horse-races.

Manufactures.—The manufactures of Roumania are in a very rudimentary condition. The Roumanians certainly have an aptitude for industry; in Transylvania they are greatly employed in mining and in factories of paper, ropes, cloth, glass, &c. Domestic industry has always been carried on in the country, and most peasants are able to make for themselves the objects of prime necessity. The women are noted for the skill with which they embroider. Formerly also leather was tanned in sufficient quantity not only to supply the domestic wants, but for exportation to Turkey and Austria. Now, however, the position of

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things is different. The duties were for a long time so low that even the small industries could not hold up against foreign competition, and of the few large factories which existed in Roumania nearly all are now at a standstill. Two match factories, two sugar refineries, a cloth factory, and a pottery are all that can now be shown. Besides these there are 7,000 flour-mills (steam, wind, and water), 700 saw-mills, 60 petroleum refineries and gas-works, 72 breweries, and 1,700 distilleries.

I may mention here that during the last year a factory for the manufacture of boots for the army has been started here, the machinery for the purpose having been brought from the United States, and also that a machine for brick-making has been imported from the United States, and will shortly come into operation.

Mines.—The Carpathian Mountains contain silver, mercury, copper, lead, arsenic, cobalt, and iron. Gold is found in the sands of several of the rivers, but not in quantities large enough to tempt any but gypsies to wash them. Sulphur, gypsum, coal, and lignite are also found, but the only minerals which are worked to any advantage are salt and petroleum.

Salt mining is a government monopoly. The chief salt mines are in the districts of Bacău, Prahova, and Vâlcea. The salt is of excellent quality, and if the work were conducted according to better methods the production would be very great. Both free and convict labor are employed in the mines, and at present some steam-engines are also in operation. The average number of workmen engaged varies between 1,600 and 2,000. The cost of mining a ton (1,000 kilograms, 2,204 pounds) of rock-salt has been reduced from $3.68 in 1862 to $1.51 in 1878. The quantity of salt annually extracted is about 64,000 tons. In 1878 it was 65,395 tons. The salt for domestic consumption is sold at the mines to peasants, who transport it throughout the country and sell it at retail. The price at the mines has varied between 1862 and 1868 from $10.83 to $15.44 per ton. In 1868 as for the preceding three years it was fixed at $15.44. The salt intended for exportation is delivered in the Danube ports. Since 1873 the price has been greatly lowered in order to compete with the salt exported from Austria. The price in 1876 was $9.89; in 1877, $8.65; and in 1878, $9.50 per ton. The total sale of salt in 1878 was 69,718 tons, of which 44,694 tons were consumed in Roumania and 25,024 tons were exported, 16,605 tons to Bulgaria, 6,936 tons to Servia, and 1,433 tons to Russia. The total profits of the government from the salt mines in 1876, 1877, and 1878 were about as follows:

	Receipts.	Expenses.	Profits.
1876	$893,000	$131,000	$762,000
1877	1,056,000	119,000	937,000
1878	961,000	109,000	852,000

Petroleum.—In the districts of Dimbovitsa, Prahova, Burzen, Rommik-Sarat, and Bacău there are wells of petroleum which are still worked in a primitive manner. A well is dug from 200 to 400 feet deep at a cost of $600 to $1,800. A well is considered very good when it gives 120 gallons a day for the first year, and only moderate when it furnishes 80 gallons. As there are no great reservoirs of petroleum, there are no flowing wells. The petroleum slowly filters through the sides of the well, and at the end of a year usually ceases to flow. At Ploiesti, Galatz, Braila, and Bucarest there are petroleum refineries.

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In 1863 the product of raw petroleum was 993,000 gallons; in 1869, 2,239,000 gallons; and in 1873, 3,837,000 gallons. The exportation of petroleum from Roumania took great proportions from 1865 to 1867, but the price of American petroleum is now so reduced that the exportation of the Roumanian article has fallen off, and in 1879 amounted to only $367,000.

FISHERIES AND FORESTS.

Fisheries.—The waters of Roumania are very rich in fish, especially the Danube, and the Baltas—lakes or marshes—formed on its banks. Many villages along them are devoted exclusively to fishing. The fisheries are entirely free, and every peasant has the right to fish in running water without payment. Fish are greatly consumed in their fresh state by the inhabitants, and especially during the many fasts; but salted fish is also a great item of local commerce, and even furnishes a certain amount for exportation. The internal commerce of fish is estimated at $1,480,000, and the exportation in 1879 was $160,000.

Forests.—The hilly and mountainous regions of Roumania are well wooded. Forests cover about 5,000,000 acres. Of this amount the State possesses 1,084,000 acres, coming fresh from the secularization of the church property. The rest belongs to private persons. Unfortunately there is little regularity in their supervision, although the state and some of the larger proprietors have recently begun to cut wood in a systematic manner. The winters in Roumania are cold, and wood and charcoal form the sole fuel. The domestic consumption of wood for fuel and for building purposes is estimated at about $20,000,000 yearly. The exportation of wood and of objects of wood, in 1879, amounted to $167,000, chiefly of timber for building, of which a great portion was sent to Turkey. The houses, both in town and country, are generally built of wood, and very frequently roofed with shingles, which gives employment to numerous saw-mills along the base of the mountains. Now that the railway to Transylvania is finished, it is expected that there will be a great increase in the sale of timber. The simple wants of the peasants give rise also to a considerable industry in the manufacture of wooden vessels. Large quantities of reeds and rushes are also made into mats, many of which are exported to Turkey. Thus, in 1879, the exportation of rushes and rush mats amounted to $94,000.

FOPEIGN COMMERCE OF ROUMANIA.

Exports and imports.—The exports and imports of Roumania for the last nine years (the statistics for 1878 were never made up, owing to the confusion of the war) have been as follows:

Years.	Exports.	Imports.
1871	$35, 536, 000	$16, 585, 000
1872	33, 315, 000	21, 865, 000
1873	32, 523, 000	19, 573 000
1874	22, 942, 000	24, 558, 000
1875	28, 992, 000	23, 271, 000
1876	47, 051, 000	33, 186, 000
1877	28, 216, 000	67, 109, 000
1879	47, 730, 000	50, 898, 000

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Customs revenue.—The customs revenues from 1873 to 1879 have been as follows:

Years.	On imports.	On exports.	Accessory.	Total.
1873	$1,290,853	$338,626	$41,855	$1,671,334
1874	1,401,495	385,263	45,565	1,832,323
1875	1,201,653	235,856	45,216	1,482,725
1876	1,128,249	408,115	33,645	1,570,007
1877	1,451,165	231,193	74,654	1,757,012
1879	2,104,549	408,720	.....	.....

Trade by countries.—Arranged according to countries, the foreign trade of Roumania in 1879 was as follows:

Countries.	Imports.	Exports.
Austria-Hungary	$24,951,000	$13,773,000
England	10,116,000	7,579,000
Turkey and Bulgaria	4,181,000	9,800,000
France	3,000,000	3,555,000
Germany	3,692,000	315,000
Russia	2,102,000	1,207,000
Italy	295,000	1,543,000
Belgium	303,000	50,000
Servia	108,000	1,180,000
Other states	2,000,000	8,728,000
Total	50,898,000	47,730,000

Exports and imports by articles.—Arranged according to categories, we find that the exports and imports of Roumania in 1879 were as follows:

Class.	Articles.	Imports.	Exports.
I	Live animals	$3,604,000	$3,988,000
II	Alimentary animal products	531,000	940,000
III	Grain, flour, and cereals	1,141,000	36,660,000
IV	Fruits, vegetables, and their products	110,000	1,780,000
V	Colonial produce	3,327,000	32,000
VI	Liquors, wines, &c	643,000	250,000
VII	Alimentary conserves, &c	532,000	38,000
VIII	Vegetables, juices, and medicine	421,000	34,000
IX	Perfumery	108,000	200
X	Chemical products	370,000	5,000
XI	Dyes and dye-stuffs	339,000	45,000
XII	Oils, fats, wax, &c	1,356,000	8,000
XIII	Other animal products (except skins)	14,000	152,000
XIV	Skins, furs, and leather	6,572,000	1,061,000
XV	India rubber and gutta-percha	193,000	200
XVI	Textile and textile materials	15,456,000	1,074,000
XVII	Paper, books, &c	2,116,000	34,000
XVIII	Woods and manufactures thereof	2,031,000	667,000
XIX	Petroleum, bitumen, &c	503,000	375,000
XX	Minerals, glass, pottery, &c	1,469,000	33,000
XXI	Metals, wrought and unwrought	8,151,000	164,000
XXII	Carriages, &c	506,000	64,000
XXIII	Miscellaneous	3,305,000	325,600
	Total	50,898,000	47,730,000

Principal exports.—As has been seen, the chief items of export are grain, flour and cereals, live animals, skins and furs, textiles and textile materials. In examining the exports of Class III, grain, flour, and cereals, we find that they were as follows: Wheat, $16,218,000; maize, $13,579,000; barley, $5,032,000; rye, $1,445,000; wheat flour, $647,000,

and farinaceous vegetables, $1,343,000.* Of the total amount, $7,600,000, or more than 20 per cent., was exported to Austria-Hungary; $7,380,000, or about 20 per cent., to Turkey and Bulgaria; $7,360,000, or about 20 per cent., to England; $3,046,000, or over 8 per cent., to France; the remainder to Italy, Russia, Germany, and other countries.

Of the live animals exported (Class I), worth $3,988,000, there were exported to Austria-Hungary to the value of $3,146,000, and to Turkey and Bulgaria, $783,000. Altogether there were exported 4,016 horses, 392 mules, 3,654 cattle, 200,899 sheep, 153,607 swine, 23,298 other animals and birds. Nearly all the horses, cattle, and swine went to Austria-Hungary. The sheep were nearly all sent to Turkey and Bulgaria.

Principal imports.—In Class XIV, skins, furs, and leather, amounting to $1,061,000, by far the greater portion—$943,000—consisted of raw hides, in actual number 1,572,998, of which to the value of $685,000 went to Austria-Hungary.

In Class XVI, textiles and textile materials, to the value of $1,074,000, we find that $885,000 consisted of wool, of which $698,000 went to Austria-Hungary.

It may be well to analyze the imports into Roumania a little more closely, referring at the same time to the table of the distribution of trade by countries.

In class XVI, textiles, we find that the imports of wool and woolen manufactures were $3,744,000; of which Austria-Hungary sent $1,905,000, England $781,000, and Germany $668,000; making in all nearly nine-tenths of the whole.

The imports of cotton and cotton manufactures were $9,980,000; of which England sent $6,255,000, Austria-Hungary $2,335,000, Germany $729,000; making $9,319,000, or 93 per cent. Linen, hemp, and jute manufacturers were $1,094,000, of which $674,000, or three-fifths, came from Austria-Hungary.

Silk goods were $446,000; of which by far the greater portion came from France.

Ready-made clothing, hats, artificial flowers, &c., amounted to $2,055,000; of which Austria-Hungary sent $1,547,000 and England $236,000.

In Class XXI, metals and metallic manufactures, we find the imports to be as follows: Hardware $4,655,000, of which Austria-Hungary sent $2,698,000, more than half; England, $1,024,000; Germany, $393,000; and France $321,000.

Agricultural and other machines, 806,000; of which Austria-Hungary sent $453,000 and England $235,000.

Cast iron and steel, $457,000; of which England sent $241,000 and Austria-Hungary $149,000.

Copper and brass, raw and manufactured, $501,000; of which Austria-Hungary sent $283,000 and England $110,000.

Jewelry of all kinds, $591,000; of which Germany sent $344,000 and Austria-Hungary $187,000.

Watches, gold and silver, $68,000; of which Austria-Hungary sent $12,060 and Germany $10,000, England, France, Russia, Turkey, Belgium, Italy, Servia, $1,940, and other countries $44,000. The other countries are here, Switzerland and the United States, for cheap American watches are sold in the shops of the larger towns.

In Class XIV, skins, leather, and leather goods, out of $6,572,000 imported, $4,530,000 came from Austria-Hungary.

* In the table of exports it will be noticed that the value of agricultural products exported is given as $36,660,000, while in the recapitulation by articles the value amounts to over $38,000,000, a difference left unexplained by the consul-general.

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In Class V, colonial produce, we find:

Sugar, $942,000; of which Austria-Hungary sent $620,000 and France $270,000.

Coffee, chocolate, and tea, $456,000, chiefly from Austria-Hungary and England.

Pepper, spices, oranges, &c., $567,000, chiefly through Turkey.

Tobacco, in leaf and manufactured, $1,362,000; of which Turkey sent $331,000, Russia $907,000, Austria-Hungary $112,000.

In Class XVII, paper and books, the imports were $2,116,000; of which about four-fifths, or $1,665,000, came from Austria-Hungary, $221,000 from France, and $141,000 from Germany.

In Class XVIII, woods, &c., the imports were $2,031,000; of which $1,742,000 came from Austria-Hungary. Of this latter, $865,000 was furniture and $634,000 timber for building.

In Class XX, minerals, pottery, glass, &c., the total imports were $1,469,000. Pottery and porcelain figured for $387,000, $266,000 coming from Austria-Hungary and $45,000 from England.

Glass and glassware for $707,000, more than half, or $435,000, coming from Austria-Hungary, $43,000 only from France, and $35,000 from England.

Marble, &c., for $362,000; of which Austria-Hungary sent $126,000; England $50,000, Turkey $55,000.

In Class XII, oils, fats, &c., the importation of stearine candles was $306,000; of which $140,000 came from France, $88,000 from Austria-Hungary, $29,000 from Belgium, and $22,000 from England; that of vegetable oil for industrial purposes, $163,000, of which $63,000 came from Austria-Hungary and $56,000 from England; and that of olive and vegetable oil for the table was $671,000. Of this last, $214,000 came from Turkey, $105,000 from Austria-Hungary, $82,000 from France, $22,000 from Italy, and $237,000 from countries not mentioned. In all probability, this $237,000 was cotton-seed oil imported from the United States for the purpose of adulteration.

In Class XIX, mineral combustibles, England and Austria sent coals to the value of $235,000; Russia, asphalt to $22,000; Turkey, Austria, and other countries, petroleum to $54,000; France, bitumen for $11,000; and Austria-Hungary, paraffine and ceresine for $179,000.

TRADE WITH THE UNITED STATES.

It is impossible to obtain from the Roumanian statistics any exact data for estimating the value of the trade with the United States. It appears from the records of the consulate at Galatz that during the quarter ending June 30, 1880, there were six shipments of old iron rails and scrap-iron to New York and Philadelphia, amounting in all to 5,113 tons English, and valued at $133,531.87.

NAVIGATION.

With the exception of the small part of Kustendjé, or, as it is now called, Costantsa, in the Dobrudja, on the shore of the Black Sea, the ports of Roumania are all in the Danube. Of these, Braila, Galatz, and Tultcha are by far the most important. Turn-Severin, Guirgevo and the other ports above Braila are unimportant, except for local traffic and trade with Hungary, Servia, and Bulgaria. Sulina, at the mouth of the Danube, is important for its works for deepening the channel, but commercially is only a port of transshipment. Braila (population

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42,000) and Galatz (population 80,000) are only eleven miles apart, and are the most important places for import and export; Braila, though the smaller town, having the larger trade. Formerly, before the union of the principalities, Braila was the port of Wallachia, and Galatz that of Moldavia. Braila and Galatz, as well as Tultcha, Sulina, and Kustendjé, are free ports, the customs duties on imports into the country being collected only outside the city limits, though a small sum is levied for the purpose of improving the quays and for local supervision.

A European commission, the seat of which is at Galatz, has sole charge of the navigation of the Lower Danube from the mouth to Galatz, and of the works for improving the channel. By a provision of the treaty of Berlin regulations are to be elaborated for the navigation of the Danube from Galatz to the Iron Gates, *i. e.* along the whole Roumanian frontier, and brought into harmony with those of the European commission.

The following tables will show the navigation of the Lower Danube for 1879, from statistics collected at Sulina by the European commission.

Vessels leaving the mouth of the Danube in 1879.

Nationalities.	Kind.	Number.	Tonnage.
Austria-Hungary	Sail	54	14,965
	Steam	88	46,145
France	do	49	37,221
Germany	Sail	1	173
	Steam	9	7,485
Great Britain	Sail	15	4,214
	Steam	479	408,492
Greece	Sail	805	147,689
	Steam	43	34,471
Holland	Sail	1	175
Italy	do	48	13,137
	Steam	1	457
Norway	do	4	4,038
Roumania	Sail	7	864
Russia	do	50	8,483
	Steam	38	15,746
Samos	Sail	15	1,213
Servia	Steam	3	1,893
Sweden	do	7	3,080
Turkey	Sail	545	47,613

Exports from the Roumanian ports on the Danube in 1879.

Description.	Ports above Braila.	Braila.	Galatz.	Tultcha.
I.—CEREALS.				
Wheat ..... Quarters	31,230	1,002,804	244,958	9,655
Rye ..... do	14	111,828	111,272	106
Maize ..... do	23,717	1,607,750	863,578	679
Barley ..... do	2,117	660,879	155,442	7,855
Oats ..... do	.....	6,403	11,481	.....
Beans ..... do	1,283	50,873	16,574	1,281
Millet ..... do	43	13,680	7	.....
Colza (rape seed) ..... do	.....	81,076	5,678	.....
Flaxseed ..... do	.....	4,294	135	.....
Total cereals	58,404	3,539,587	1,409,125	19,556
II.—WOOD.				
Rafts ..... number	.....	.....	3	.....
Ties ..... do	.....	31,663	.....	.....
Planks ..... do	.....	43,152	714,481	.....
Staves ..... do	73,600	793,466	375,829	.....
Laths ..... do	.....	.....	1,180,065	.....
Pipes ..... do	417,299	.....	.....	.....

Exports from the Roumanian ports on the Danube in 1879—Continued.

Description.		Ports above Braila.	Braila.	Galatz.	Tultcha.
MISCELLANEOUS.					
Pitch	Hs.	260,458	233,420	.....	.....
Biscuits	sacks.	11,390	.....	950	.....
Flour	Hs.	274,007	11,504,081	7,195,947	16,500
Cheese	bales.	.....	.....	2,292	.....
Do	Hs.	.....	830,143	174,941	455,743
Cattle	head.	.....	.....	50	.....
Skins	bales.	.....	164	341	.....
Wool	do.	.....	.....	.....	600,000
Do	Hs.	.....	.....	.....	220,660
Bones	tons.	.....	300	.....	.....
Ammunition	do.	.....	.....	750	.....
Old iron	do.	.....	3,230	.....	.....
Miscellaneous	packages.	.....	10,741	37,418	1,024
Do	Hs.	.....	1,729,017	522,286	14,300

A small portion of the first column of the above table, especially the pipe items, was from the Bulgarian port of Rustchuk.

Kustendjé.—The port of Kustendjé is of importance during the summer months only, when the low water interferes with the navigation of the Lower Danube. Grain is then brought to Kustendjé by the Black Sea Railway, which leaves the Danube at Tchernavoda, and is shipped thence to Western Europe.

There entered Kustendjé in 1879, with cargoes, 124 steamers and 123 sailing ships of the total tonnage of 102,439 tons; and in ballast 147 steamers and 344 sailing vessels, of a total of 111,167 tons. There cleared in the same time, with cargo, 119 steamers and 296 sailing ships, of a total of 119,131 tons; and in ballast 122 steamers and 166 sailing ships, of a total of 84,855 tons.

Of these there arrived from Turkey, 405; Roumania, 131; Bulgaria, 69; Roumelia, 70; Russia, 18; Samos, 8; Greece, 5; England, 3; Italy, 2; France, 1; and there sailed to Turkey, 368; Roumania, 179; Roumelia, 39; Bulgaria, 31; Russia, 19; Greece, 17; France, 23; England, 15; Italy, 7; Austria, 2; unknown, 3. Of the vessels sailed there carried the Turkish flag, 321; Greek, 89; Austrian, 83; French, 79; English, 49; Russian, 46; Italian, 11; Samos, 9; German, 6; Bulgarian, 6; Roumelian, 3; Swedish, 1.

WAYS OF COMMUNICATION.

River communication.—Besides the Danube, the Pruth and the Jin are partly navigable for steamers. Boats bringing wood, and even cereals, are able to descend the Seret and the Bisbritsa.

Railway communication.—There are now open in Roumania 827 miles of railway. These consist of two main trunk lines, one extending from Bucharest, westward through Wallachia to Orsova on the western frontier; the other, from Bucharest eastward to Braila, and through the whole of Moldavia to Suczawa on the Galician frontier. Branch roads connect these with the towns of Botoshan, Jassy, and Birlad in Molda, via, with Giurgevo on the Danube, and with Predeal on the Transylvania frontier. In this way the railways touch the Danube at four points; at the Iron Gates from Orsova (Verciorova) to Turn-Severin, Giurgevo, Braila, and Galatz. Three connections are made with the Austro-Hungarian railways; one at Orsova, with the Staats-Bahn, going directly to Pesth and Vienna; one at Predeal with the Transylvania line through Kronstadt, and one at Suczawa with the Cracow, Lemberg, Czernowitz

line. Besides this, at Ungheni, on the Pruth, a few miles from Jassy, there is a communication with the Russian railway via Kishinef to Odessa. In the Dobrudja there is a short railway, forty-one miles long, from Tchernovoda on the Danube to Constantsa (Kustendjé) on the Black Sea. This last road is owned and worked by an English company. Of the railways in Roumania proper, that from Jassy to Ungheni, that from Ploesti to Predeal, and that from Bucharest to Giurgevo, were built and have always been owned by the state. The road from Roman to Suczava with its branches to Jassy and Botoshan is worked by the Austrian, Lemberg, Czernowitz Railway Company, and was built by arrangement with the capitalist Oppenhein. The two roads from Bucharest to Orsova (Verciorova) and from Bucharest via Galatz to Roman were built by the noted Stroussberg, who formed a company for their working, called the Romanian Railway Company. During the last year three lines have been bought up by the State. Difficulties were made by some of the stockholders, who appealed to the German courts, the seat of the company being at Berlin. The court of appeal has now formally decided in favor of the Roumanian Government, which has given new bonds for the old securities to the amount of 225,882,450 marks ($53,805,200), leaving only 7,058,550 ($1,681,346) marks outstanding. The financial operation is an advantageous one to the government, which, besides controlling the railways, actually pays out less yearly now than it did as guarantee under the previous arrangement. The total revenue of the lines in question was in 1879 $3,513,457; and the total working expenses, $2,684,883. There were carried 730,414 passengers and 975,893 tons of freight. A short line from Buzen to Marashest, fifty-six miles, is now being constructed at the expense of the state, and will be opened in another year. This will greatly abridge the distance between Bucharest and Jassy.

Highways.—The roads in Romania are divided into four classes:

I. National chaussées or macadamized.
II. District roads.
III. Vicinal roads.
IV. Communal roads.

The national roads number 37, and 1,240 miles are open to travel, all having been built since 1864, leaving about 800 miles to be completed according to the plans adopted by the government. These roads, of which 26 miles are paved and the remainder macadamized, on an average cost $9,600 a mile. The departmental or district roads, which were begun in 1868, now open, amount to 2,215 miles, on which there are 1,680 bridges, large and small. The vicinal roads are 1,600 and the communal roads 370 miles in length. All the citizens of the country are obliged to contribute to the construction of roads. The inhabitants of the villages pay in kind, while the inhabitants of the towns pay fixed sums. On the great roads twenty-two large iron bridges, of the total length of 14,618 feet, have been built by a firm of English contractors since 1864, at an expense of $4,447,000.

POSTS AND TELEGRAPHS.

The Roumanian post-office has been in operation since April 1, 1869, only. Before that time the postal service was conducted by the consular posts of Russia and Austria. There are now eighty-two telegraphic postal offices, twelve postal offices, and one hundred and ten rural post-offices. The following table will show the operations of the post-office for 1877 and 1878, though it must be noticed that these years are some-

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what exceptional owing to the great numbers of Russians and foreigners in the country in consequence of the war, and the great amount of business done.

Movement of letters.

Description.	1877.	1878.
INTERIOR.		
Letters stamped	2,602,558	4,367,472
Letters unstamped	620,611	677,925
Letters registered	248,669	188,614
Post-cards	188,846	348,405
Patterns and printed matter	3,470,574	3,783,282
Registered official documents	1,600,835	1,159,806
ABROAD.		
Letters stamped (sent)	1,264,463	1,450,944
Letters unstamped (sent)	431,322	318,729
Letters registered (sent)	114,403	140,050
Post-cards (sent)	53,451	67,685
Printed matter (sent)	50,024	386,337
Samples (sent)	27,730	44,442
Registered official documents (sent)	15,028	17,126
Letters stamped (received)	665,523	958,470
Letters unstamped (received	60,223	62,826
Letters registered (received)	89,996	116,808
Postal cards (received)	35,882	44,709
Printed matter (received)	785,942	906,645
Samples (received)	33,635	45,575

Movement of telegrams.

Description.	1877.	1878.
INTERIOR.		
Dispatches, private	441,067	518,283
Dispatches, official	256,652	165,057
ABROAD.		
Dispatches, private (sent)	127,637	181,659
Dispatches, official (sent)	2,638	4,607
Dispatches, private (received)	119,898	186,370
Dispatches, official (received	4,420	5,411

Packages and letters containing money.

Description.	1877.	1878.
INTERIOR.		
Private	116,634	130,698
Official	24,524	32,664
ABROAD.		
Private (sent)	74,933	69,587
Official (sent)	305	414
Private (received)	17,164	15,348
Official (received)	324	303

Total value declared, $69,149,562.

Ordinary packages sent.

Total number for the interior and abroad in 1877	packages..	127,953
Total value in 1877		$17,504,900

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Postal and telegraphic receipts, not including the excess coming from the Russians.

Description.	1877.	1878.
Telegraphs	$375,038	$403,714
Posts	418,071	464,118
Total	793,109	867,832

FINANCES.

The finances of Roumania are in a tolerably healthy condition.

The revenue and expenditure of the government from 1870 to 1878 have been as follows:

Years.	Revenue.	Expenditure.	Surplus.	Deficit.
1870	$14,959,405	$14,537,664	$421,741	.....
1871	15,188,892	14,847,757	341,135	.....
1872	16,998,083	17,044,712	.....	$46,629
1873	18,569,811	18,360,720	209,091	.....
1874	17,594,060	17,790,688	.....	196,628
1875	19,154,436	19,762,514	.....	608,081
1876	18,132,118	19,809,352	.....	1,667,234
1877	23,705,210	21,039,190	2,666,020	.....
1878	26,317,690	24,307,740	2,009,950	.....
			5,647,937	2,520,572

In spite, therefore, of the deficits for 1872, 1874, 1875, and 1876, the revenues increased so greatly during 1877 and 1878—the years of the war—that in these nine years there was a surplus of revenue over expenditure of $3,147,365.

The estimate for 1879 and 1880, including the newly-annexed province of the Dobrudja, are—

Year.	Revenue.	Expenditure.	Deficit.
1879	$20,904,663	$22,262,369	$1,267,706
1880	24,808,455	25,538,184	729,729

As the estimates of receipts and expenditure in each budget are calculated on the average of the five preceding years, not enough account is taken of the gradual improvement or falling off of the revenue under particular heads, and the completed accounts are therefore liable to vary widely from the estimates. In 1879 and 1880, unless there have been additional extraordinary expenses, there is more probability of a surplus than of a deficit.

The expenses of Roumania during the war of 1877 and 1878 were of two kinds, those for the actual purposes of the war and those growing out of it. The first amounted to the sum of $9,637,164, divided as follows:

I. Expenses of concentration and mobilization, the support of the army, and the support of the Turkish prisoners, $4,978,427.

II. Premium for the equipment of the officers, $78,320.

III. Clothing, equipments, tents, telegraphs, $759,159.

IV. Munitions of war, $429,419.

V. Cost of military transports on railway and on the Danube, $699,984.

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VI. Construction and keeping up of the bridge over the Danube, $86,000.

VII. Expenses for the military medical service for burying parties and for disinfection of localities, $66,531.

VIII. Requisitions, $2,456,456.

IX. Purchase of horses, $51,600.

X. Commemorative medals, $30,168.

The expenses growing out of the war amounted to $1,726,631:

I. The commissariats instituted with the Russian army, $73,000.

II. Expenses for maintaining public order, $11,200.

III. Extraordinary expenses for keeping up and working the railways of the Roumanian Railway Company, $1,482,431.

IV. Loss on paper rubles received from Russian armies, $60,000.

V. Loss on the silver ruble, reduced to the exchange of 3.70 francs, $100,000.

Most of these expenses were covered by the great increase of revenue during the years of the war.

There are certain claims of Roumania against Russia and of Russia against Roumania, growing out of the war, with a large balance due to Roumania, which have not yet been adjusted. Negotiations on this subject have been for some time under way, and it is thought that an agreement is on the point of being reached.

Budget for 1880.

Description.	Revenue.	Description.	Expenditure.
Direct contributions	$4,846,000	Public debt	$9,895,675
Indirect contributions	9,516,000	Ministerial council	5,809
Receipts from domains and public lands	3,647,000	Ministry of the interior	1,631,253
Ministerial receipts	2,629,024	Ministry of foreign affairs	287,246
Divers receipts	3,720,000	Ministry of justice	786,806
Receipts of the Dobrudja	450,431	Ministry of religion and instruction	2,052,031
		Ministry of war	5,034,737
		Ministry of public works	1,538,023
		Ministry of finance	3,615,430
		Expenses of the Dobrudja	496,164
		Fund for opening special and supplementary credits	200,000
Total	24,808,455	Total	25,538,184

This shows an apprehended deficit of $729,729.

The greatest expenses are those for the service of the public debt, more than one-third of the whole. Then come the expenses of the War Department, then those of the Treasury Department, in the collection of the revenue, and then those for the support of churches and public schools.

The chief revenues are those derived from the public domains, the roads and railways, customs, land tax, stamps, licenses and excise of spirits, posts and telegraphs, and the monopolies of salt and tobacco, as will be seen by the following table for 1877 and 1878:

Sources of revenue.	1877.	1878.
Domains, rent, sale of wood, &c.	$2,082,454	$2,705,652
Roads and railways	1,689,394	2,147,115
Customs	757,012	3,251,305
Land tax	803,101	706,275
Stamps	765,836	1,021,951
Licenses and excise spirits	1,277,073	1,357,682
Posts and telegraphs	793,109	867,832
Salt (gross receipts)	1,075,950	945,287
Tobacco	1,604,004	1,732,817

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The public domains arising from the confiscation of the church property are so great that their sale would go a long distance towards paying the state debt. The sale of tobacco has been for some years a monopoly of the state. The monopoly has increased the revenue, but it has caused a deterioration in the quality of tobacco used and for sale.

THE PUBLIC DEBT.

We have seen that nearly 40 per cent. of the revenue expected in 1880 is to be applied to the service of the public debt. This is far too large a percentage to be safe. But we must remember that the debt of Roumania, which has been all incurred since 1864, and which amounted on January 1, 1880, to over $103,000,000, has been chiefly for the purpose of internal improvements, which have added to the productive force of the country, and for the emancipation of the serfs. Over 27,000,000 have already been paid off; and if peace can be maintained and the land be afflicted with no unusual calamity, according to the conditions of the debt, it will be nearly all extinguished in less than fifty years. The funded debt on January 1, 1880, was as follows:

Year.	Title.	Per cent.	Nominal capital.	Annuities (budget for 1879).	Remains to be paid.	Year of extinction.
1864	Stern Brothers	7	$4,577,887	$414,055	$2,278,500	1888
1864	Iron bridges	9	2,405,457	312,476	286,675	1880
1866	Oppenheim & Co	8	6,322,100	612,672	4,090,300	1889
1868	Railway Roman-Vericoreva	7½	49,626,000	3,721,950	49,252,350	1933
1868	Railway Suczawa-Jassy	7½	10,350,000	771,405	10,350,000	1961
1871	Domainal bonds	8	15,600,000	1,600,000	11,855,800	1891
1872	Railway Jassy-Ungheni	8	754,043	90,485	452,070	1886
1872	Caisse des Dépôts	7½	1,997,064	149,780	1,997,064	.....
1875	Rente	5	8,920,000	446,000	8,920,000	.....
1865	Rural bonds	10	21,445,895	2,841,780	5,175,642	1881
			122,001,436	10,960,603	94,658,401	

The floating debt, represented by treasury bonds and paper money, is about $9,000,000; the interest on which is over $630,000 annually.

A great change has been made in the funded debt during the present year by the conversion of the 10 per cent. rural bonds into 6 per cent., and by prolonging their term from 1881 to 1924, by various reductions, and by the purchase of the Roman-Verciorovo Railway. It is expected that on January 1, 1881, the funded debt remaining to be paid will be $101,003,985, a nominal increase over 1880 of $6,345,584; but the total annual payments on account of the debt will be reduced to $8,184,729, a saving of $6,775,874 annually. As it stands at present, in 1890 the interest, &c., will be reduced to $7,065,923, in 1899 to $4,632,479, and in 1924 to $1,287,488.

A proposition is now before the minister of finance to unify a large portion of this debt and convert it into 6 per cents., which would reduce the interest and annuities from 1881 to about $7,000,000.

CURRENCY AND BANKING.

The general course of trade, as well as the finances of the state, are to a certain extent disordered by the currency. Up to the year 1868 the Turkish currency of piasters, paras, and aspers was officially in use, but the coinage of all countries circulated, and no coins were taken at

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the same value in two towns, however near each other. In 1868 the currency of the Latin Union was adopted, *i. e.*, francs and centimes, called here *lei* and *bani*. Sufficient money to meet the wants of the population has never been coined, although a large supply of 1 and 2 lei peices, and 10, 5, 3, 2, and 1 bani pieces are in circulation. The want of silver is therefore made up by the use of foreign currency, especially of Russian silver ruble pieces. The nominal value of these some years ago was four francs, but owing to the fall in the price of silver this became too high, and silver flowed here from all parts of the world, and especially from Russia. About a year ago the government found it necessary to reduce the value at which the ruble would be received to 3.70 francs. Even this is too high, and it is highly probable that within a short time the ruble will be reduced in value to 3.50 francs, or will be entirely demonetized. Last winter a law was passed for the coinage of 24,000,000 francs in five-franc pieces. These are not yet ready, but it is expected that they will be issued in the course of a month. Paper money is at a slight discount as compared with gold, seldom, if ever, reaching 2 per cent. At the present time it is less than 1 per cent.

Besides the numbers of private bankers, the Romanian Bank, practically a branch of the Imperial Ottoman Bank, of Constantinople and London, does business in the larger towns of Roumania, and the government has lately established a state bank, the National Bank of Romania, which, however, has not yet begun operations. A number of savings associations flourish, and the government is about to establish a savings bank under state auspices.

In addition to a few general stock companies like the *Crédit Foncier Rural* and the *Crédit Foncier Urbain*, there are three large insurance companies, the *Dacia*, the *Roumania*, and the *Unirea*, which insure against death, fire, and losses by hail or epizooty.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

The metrical system of weights and measures is now officially in force, but the old weights and measures of the country, which are different in the different provinces, are still largely used by the country population, and especially for the measurement of land, and in Galatz and Braila for the sale of grain.

TARIFF.

As there are practically no manufactures in Roumania, the customs tariff is intended solely for the collection of revenue. It is very complicated, and covers a very large number of articles. Certain diminutions on the tariff have been obtained on various articles by means of commercial treaties. Such treaties have now been made with Austria, Hungary, Belgium, Germany, Greece, Great Britain, Italy, Russia, and Switzerland. Countries which have not yet made commercial treaties are subjected to the higher rates of the tariff, as also to a sur-tax of 15 per cent. on those rates.

GENERAL REMARKS.

It will be seen from what precedes, that in spite of the comparatively heavy taxation to meet the rapidly increasing expenditure, Roumania may be said to be in a prosperous state. Agriculture flourishes, commerce prospers, and there seems to be every reason to believe that the country will continue to improve materially. In considering the pres-

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ent condition of things, we should remember that at the time of the Crimean war foreign commerce scarcely existed; the land, entirely in the hands of rich Boyars, or of the church, was worked by serfs and produced rich crops; but as there were no roads, it was very difficult to get them to market. Fortunately the decision of the European powers, guided by England and Austria, that the two provinces of Moldavia and Wallachia should forever remain separate under native princes, came to naught. By the force of events the provinces became united under the rule of a foreign prince, the inhabitants have governed themselves on most liberal principles, and the prosperity of the country has been the consequence if not the result.

I should add to this that the government of the country is reasonably well carried on, life and property are safe, religion is free, schools are increasing and improving, and the courts of law, where justice is fairly administered, are open to all. The legal system here is practically that of *Code Napoléon*. Some of the foreign consulates still claim jurisdiction over their own subjects. The capitulations were maintained by the treaty of Berlin until new arrangements were made, and there seems in some quarters a disposition to use this as a means of extorting concessions on other points from the Roumanian Government.

The roads, the bridges, the railways, the increased production of the country, and the greatly extended commerce, have almost entirely come into being within the last sixteen years.

There is, however, one black spot on this picture which deserves the attentive consideration of the Roumanian Government, that is, the very slow rate of the increase of the population. In the urban population from 1870 to 1878 there were only three years, 1875, 1876, and 1877, when the number of births exceeded the deaths, and in the urban and rural population united, in 1873, 1874, and 1878 the deaths exceeded the births. In the urban population there is a general decrease in the number of marriages. The relative increase of the population is less in Roumania than in Norway, Denmark, Hungary, Sweden, Belgium, Switzerland, and Austria, although greater than in England, Germany, France, and Holland. The relative number of marriages in Roumania per year is less than in any of those countries. The relative number of marriages in Bucharest is less than in any large city of Europe, except Moscow. One peculiarity of the movement of the population in Roumania is that the Jewish part of the population increases relatively much faster than the Christian population. The relative yearly increase of the Jewish and Christian population, taking an average of the nine years from 1870 to 1878, should be one to 23.34; it is, in fact, one to 6.6.

The population suffers greatly from the constant prevalence of diphtheria.

During the last year, by decree and not by a regular law, a strict system of passport regulations was introduced—the severest and most annoying in Europe. Were it literally carried out it would prove a great hinderance to trade and to the development of the country. In the commercial treaty with Belgium a clause is inserted diminishing the annoyances of this system as respects merchants and commercial travelers.

AMERICAN TRADE WITH ROUMANIA.

There would seem, therefore, no obstacles to American trade with Roumania, except such as arise from the nature of the articles which the two countries have for export; the high freights on account of the great distance, and the relative cheapness as compared with similar articles

produced in other countries. In a previous special report, dated September 28, 1880, I have spoken of the possibility of the importation into Roumania from the United States of agricultural implements and agricultural machines. To this should be added machines of all sorts, especially sewing-machines and other kinds of hardware, and those small patented articles for which American manufacturers are becoming every day more famous. Besides the agricultural implements and the agricultural machines, which have greatly pleased here on account of their lightness and good shape, a machine for making bricks has also been imported during the last year, as well as the whole plant of a large factory for making military boots. This factory has been set up on behalf of the government by Messrs. C. S. Larrabee and Company, of Mainz, and turns out two hundred and fifty pairs of boots a day. Every machine used therein was brought from the United States.

Machines should be sent ready to set up, as it is only in such cases that they are allowed to enter free of duty. If the parts are sent by different shipments, they must either pay duty, or one part wait exposed to the weather, owing to want of proper sheds, until the rest arrive.

There would seem to be a fair opening for the introduction of cotton goods and other stuffs into Roumania, if they can be produced of equal or better quality, and at a sufficiently less price to cover the difference of freight in competition with similar goods coming from England and France. The English goods sent here are generally of poor quality, and many of them are bought up by Jews from remnants on hand after fires and bankruptcies. Persons who can afford good things usually prefer articles of French and Austrian manufacture.

There are always steamers coming to Galatz and Odessa from London, Liverpool, and Hull. There are also lines from Marseilles to Galatz and Odessa. A connection might be made with these through the Italian Florio Steamship Company, the steamers of which now stop at Marseilles on their homeward journey from New York to Naples.

I have mentioned Odessa because that is becoming a center for Roumanian trade, and large quantities of the goods imported into Moldavia, especially, pass through Odessa, and are sent either by steamer to Galatz or by railway to Jassy. For American exporters this is important, because, owing in great part to the efforts of the consul of the United States at Odessa, there is a rapidly increasing trade at that port in American manufactured articles, and it is easier to extend a trade already begun than to establish entirely new agencies at Galatz and Bucharest.

Galatz and Braila are becoming *entrepôts* for the trade with Bulgaria, which is destined to increase rapidly in importance now that the country possesses a stable government. At present it is almost a virgin field for enterprise.

American exporters, however, can hardly hope for a great extension of their trade in countries like this, unless they send either some agent in whom they have confidence, or enter into relations with some one on the spot. While the consular officers are ready to assist exporters with information and advice they can hardly be expected to do more, either by placing their samples with merchants or by collecting their debts. It is difficult for merchants and commission agents here to see the whole value of an article from an illustrated advertisement. Roumania is constantly traversed by traveling agents of manufacturing houses in England, France, Germany, Austria, and Belgium, who bring the goods to the notice of the consumers, and in many cases create a trade which did not previously exist.

American exporters should also conform themselves to some extent to the customs of the country, if they wish for success. Several cases have come within my limited experience where intended imports have been given up, because the exporter insisted on cash payment before the goods were shipped. On the one hand it may be difficult for the exporter to learn about the business standing of the house which orders the goods, but he should remember, at the same time, that it is still more difficult for the importer to know whether the American manufacturers advertising certain articles in the trade journals are reputable houses, and will carry out their agreement, and whether the articles will turn out what they are represented to be. In certain cases the beginnings of a trade have come to naught because the American manufacturer, after receiving the order, has found it easier to supply in the first place the increased home demand, and the articles sent abroad arrived after the time of year when they could be sold had passed by, and there was either no sale for them, or the importer had them on his hands for many months until the season came round again.

It should not be forgotten that the Roumanian peasant, like most persons of his class in countries of a low degree of civilization, is devoted to routine. He will frequently refuse a better quality of goods at the same or even a less price, if it is not the kind to which he has been accustomed, not only in actual pattern or appearance, but even sometimes in the manner in which it is put up and in its wrappers. This is not only true of articles intended for wear, but of other things. I have heard of a peasant who refused a better quality of sugar because the loaves were wrapped in blue and not the yellow paper to which he was habituated. This is but natural, and it is much easier to sell goods by humoring people's prejudices than by an attempt to educate them up to the point of distinguishing the real quality of articles. In textiles it is almost impossible in such countries to sell goods which are either wider or narrower than usual, or are longer or shorter in the piece.

EUGENE SCHUYLER,
Consul-General.

CONSULATE-GENERAL OF THE UNITED STATES,
Bucharest, November 16, 1880.

AMERICAN SHIPPING INTERESTS.

REPORT BY CONSUL BROOKS, OF CORK.

I have the honor to submit a few additional suggestions to those made in previous dispatches regarding American shipping interests.*

In nine cases out of ten American sailing vessels, having discharged their home-produced cargoes in European markets, return to the United States in ballast. This profitless return voyage is accounted for to some extent by the fact that the balance of the transatlantic trade is in favor of the United States, and that, while the Old World consumes much of the overproduction of that country, American cargoes are generally paid for in cash and not in kind, as the phrase goes. But there is another reason for it, and one which must attract general attention, namely, that the great and constantly increasing fleets of steam vessels employed in this trade, while they charge profit-paying freight rates on their east

* See Consular Reports, No. 2, for November, 1880.

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ward-bound voyages, take freight at almost nominal rates from Europe to the United States. This competition with the sailing vessels, so successful, because of quick transportation and low rates of insurance gives to the steam vessels a powerful hold upon the westward-bound traffic. In fact, while it is not many years ago since this trade, and much of the emigrant carrying besides, was nearly all done in sailing vessels, it is now practically monopolized by steamers. Empty petroleum barrels, salt, and scrap or old iron (the latter a dangerous and "straining" cargo) are about the only freights now carried by American sailing craft on their home voyages.

The familiar fact must not be forgotten in the consideration of this subject that the cost of labor in the United States is higher than in England, and that the materials used in ship-building are cheaper, besides being duty free, in the latter country than in the former. Also, that Great Britain does not now contest the supremacy of the sea, so far as sailing vessels are concerned, any more than Norway or Italy does; and that in these last-mentioned countries the same advantages of cheap labor and materials are enjoyed. So it appears that the original outlay in ship-building is less elsewhere than in the United States. And it must be admitted that the "finish" of American vessels, their ornamentation, and their provisions for the comfort of officers and crew are superior and more costly than in the vessels of any other nationality. The captain's cabin, to illustrate, of an American vessel, is often finished with maple, or other highly polished and neatly painted wood, is always roomy and comfortable, and the crew's quarters are correspondingly convenient, while in Norwegian or Italian vessels very little regard is paid to anything but accommodation for the largest amount of freight, even at the sacrifice of the convenience, comfort, and health of the officers and sailors.

In view of all these facts I venture to remark that self-interest will sooner or latter suggest to American capitalists the abandonment of all attempts to maintain sailing fleets in our foreign commerce and confine their attention to the coastwise trade. It is certain that with the load of consular, customs, pilotage, harbor, and other fees added to the interest on the cost of original construction and on the expenses of deep-water ships under existing laws, the margin for profit in this business is very small, and that the various competitive agencies alluded to are constantly narrowing even that small margin.

Our coastwise trade is to some extent free from these extraordinary expenses and impositions of official fees. At the same time it is free from all foreign competition. This freedom will always enable it to thrive and commend it as a safe investment for capital. But it is a question whether coastwise sailors are always of the kind from which the nation might expect a gallant navy would spring in the case of instant necessity, as was the case in 1861.

Again, the English have a great advantage over us in the matter of iron sailing ships. While it is conceded as a fixed fact that our ships of all kinds are better built, better finished, and better or faster sailers, the further fact remains that foreign-built ships of any description are (it cannot be too often repeated) built at less cost, and the figures show that in competition with the American wooden ship for freight in any port in the world an English iron vessel always has the preference, and a preference, too, which is signalized by the payment of higher freight rates and lower insurance rates, in favor of the British competitor.

In concluding these suggestions I would be remiss if I were to fail to repeat, with emphasis, the evident fact that unless some radical change

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is very soon effected in the American merchant marine, the day of sailing vessels in foreign waters under American colors will soon have passed away. And it may not be presumptuous to add that steam after all will continue to be supreme, despite any legislative effort that may be made to restore the lost prestige of our sailing craft upon the ocean.

ED. P. BROOKS, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Cork, November 5, 1880.

THE AGRICULTURAL CONDITION AND PROSPECTS OF GREAT BRITAIN.

REPORT BY CONSUL CANISIUS, OF BRISTOL.

The agricultural state of this country has turned out just as I ventured to predict in several of my reports to the State Department, and I believe its condition will still be worse. The fact that my consular district extends over some of the most important farming portions of England, has given me the opportunity of making many observations regarding English farming and its probable future. I have made trips into Gloucestershire, Somersetshire, Devonshire, Dorsetshire, and Wiltshire for the purpose of studying this great question in the most practical manner, by seeing some of the very best farmers and learning from their own words what they think of the future of the great business in which they are engaged. Without exception, their statements have been most discouraging. Thousands of land tenants are even now in a condition which will make it impossible for them to carry on agriculture any longer, and thousands of others will be in the same condition if they continue to work in tilling the soil of Great Britain.

Parliament will, in its session commencing on the 6th of January next, pass very radical reforms regarding the land-tenure of Ireland, and if those reforms prove beneficial for the 600,000 land tenants of that country, an agitation will undoubtedly spring up at once in England to induce Parliament to annul the existing land laws, and to modify the laws of England in regard to the tenure of farms, which are very bad indeed; for every renter of land can be expelled from it within six months, thereby losing every shilling he may have expended for the improvement of his rented farm.

The proprietors of the land never put any improvements on their farms in the form of manure, ditches, or fences, which is consequently a great loss to the renter, who does all this (and who has to do it if he wishes to succeed), when he has to leave the farm, either on account of the landlord's caprice or because he is not able to pay the rental and the taxes levied on the land for imperial or local purposes.

The much-desired changes will of course be passed in both houses of the legislature only after still severer experiences than those of the past years. The lower house may very soon put a law on the statute books making the ground of this country an article of merchandise, like any personal property is, but the consent of the House of Lords to such a legal enactment will perhaps not be had for some time.

But the marvelous competition of the United States farmers with British agriculturists will, in due time, convince the landlords that to

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hold vast tracts of land in England, Scotland, or Wales will be as unremunerative as it is at present in Ireland. If our agricultural competition had not made it unprofitable during the last five years for the farmers of Great Britain to pursue their occupation, the land laws of this country would remain as they now are; but, as the farmers of the great Mississippi Valley will, from year to year, increase their cereal productions, not only to supply the 51,000,000 of our republic, but also the 35,000,000 of the British Isles, the great land-owners will surely, in due time, consent that also in this country small land-proprietors should exist, as in France and Germany.

FINANCIAL CONDITION OF THE BRITISH FARMER.

In a recent number of the English Statist was published the number of bills of sale given by farmers in exchange for loans. In the twelve months ending October last no fewer than 3,210 bills of sale for an aggregate sum of $2,837,800 were given by the agriculturists of the United Kingdom; and the smallness of most of the sums borrowed indicates the desperate straits to which many of them have been driven. Not less than 314 bills of sale were given for sums under $100, and 861 submitted to the risk of bills of sale for loans of $100 to $250. For sums of over $250 to $500 about 694 bills of sale were given, and 547 farmers submitted to the same conditions for loans of from $500 to $1,000. But this does not conclude the list, for 507 had to take loans amounting to between $1,500 and $2,500; 125 borrowed from $2,500 to $5,000, and 74 gave bills of sale for loans of over $5,000. This shows clearly the distressed condition of the British farmers.

A general hope is entertained in this country that a better time is coming for the hard-working and really excellent English agriculturists, who deserve prosperity, because they toil unceasingly in the cultivation of the soil and the care of their live-stock; but that hope, in my opinion, will never be realized. To every American this thought will, of course be sad, for our people are the most humane in the world, and wish Great Britain, above all other countries, prosperity and happiness.

A friendly feeling now pervades nearly all classes of this kingdom, for which we can but entertain the greatest sympathy for the 35,000,000 souls of the mother-country. This feeling cannot, of course, have a retarding effect upon the further increase of our cereal produce, although this very increase must ruin still more the agriculturists of this land, the effect of which will be that thousands more will go to the United States, and bring the soil of this country finally into the same proprietorial condition as that of France and Germany. As it is the faith of all highly civilized nations to vie with each other in the arts of peace, the regard which our people entertain for the beautiful isles of Great Britain can never stifle the endeavors of our manufacturing classes to surpass all other countries in the manufacturing industries, not only in practicability but also in cheapness of price.

THEODORE CANISIUS, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Bristol, December 31, 1881.

CATTLE DISEASES IN GREAT BRITAIN.

REPORT BY CONSUL CANISIUS, OF BRISTOL.

THE SUPERIORITY OF AMERICAN CATTLE.

At the Epiphany quarter-sessions for the county of Somerset, and recently held at Taunton, about twenty-five or thirty miles from Bristol, a remarkable disclosure was made in a report of the chief constable, chief inspector of diseased cattle. The privy council at London seems to have deemed it prudent, in order to prevent cattle diseases, to put the United States (not Canada) in the list of scheduled countries, by which our imported cattle are prohibited from being brought into the interior of England. I have never heard of a single head of live beef brought from New York, Boston, or Baltimore, to Bristol, having been in any but a first-rate condition; in fact, the American cattle are the very best and healthiest landed here, and no fear need be entertained that American cattle will bring over infectious diseases, because the parties engaged in this increasing traffic, which was considered an impossible one only a few years ago, will bring to this country but the finest and healthiest animals which the prairies of Illinois and Iowa, and the grassy slopes of Colorado, produce. Texas and Cherokee cattle also find a good market here, provided they have had good attention and quietude in the North for a couple of seasons, and have had their propensity for running races with the locomotives now crossing their verdant grazing places checked.

The average price of these cattle, nearly all of which are landed at the excellent Monmouth Docks below the city, has been about $150 per head, although Bristol receives every week a large number of live-stock from Ireland, which prevents, in some degree, American cattle from obtaining a still higher price than £29 or £30 sterling. But the report of January 4, made by the chief inspector to the proper authorities in session at Taunton, will raise American steers very much in the estimation of butchers and consumers, for it has been definitely proved that the cattle of Ireland are very liable to contract diseases by which healthy cattle are also soon affected. The principal infectious diseases of Irish cattle brought to Bristol are pleuro-pneumonia and the foot-and-mouth disease, as may be seen from the chief constable's official letter, which I copy here, because it is important to all who have paid careful attention to the export of American cattle to England, and because it will probably have the effect of creating a still greater demand for American live steers than ever. The letter reads as follows:

CHIEF CONSTABLE'S OFFICE,
Glastonbury, January 4, 1881.

SIR: I much regret having to report that five outbreaks of foot-and-mouth disease have lately occurred in the county, namely, at Nyland, West Pennard, Baltonsboro', Brislington, and Bridgewater. Three of these outbreaks have most clearly been traced to Irish cattle purchased by dealers in the Bristol market; and a fourth outbreak occured in a herd of cattle consigned to a salesman in Bristol, and were twice exhibited for sale in the market there before the disease appeared in the herd. The fifth outbreak occured in a herd of 21 steers at Bawdrip. I have been unable to trace the origin of the disease. The owner, however, supposed it was introduced by sheep which he had bought at Bridgewater.

When these five outbreaks were first noticed there were only 14 animals affected, but since the 13th December the number has increased to 85 out of a total of 102 ani.

mals, and I have little doubt the whole of them will be affected. I mention this to show the contagious nature of the disease, and I am satisfied that if immediate steps are not taken to prohibit holding of fairs, markets, sales, &c., the malady will rapidly extend, as we have no means of preventing the removal of Irish cattle to any part of the county, which are, in my opinion the source from which the disease originated.

It may not be considered out of place, before I conclude this part of my report, to draw the attention of the executive committee to the state of this county as regards foot-and-mouth disease in the years 1872 and 1875, as it may be the means of inducing the privy council to comply with the urgently expressed wishes of nearly all the local committees, as well as that of the farmers generally, to give power to the local authority to regulate the movement of animals, and to prohibit the holding of fairs, markets, and exhibitions of cattle during the prevalence of the disease.

During the year 1872 there were affected with the foot-and-mouth disease in this county 79,225 head of cattle; 132,924 sheep, and 9,608 pigs. Of these 1,489 cattle died, 266 sheep and 8,032 pigs; and the estimated loss, on a low scale, was £219,159. During the year 1875 there were affected 64,422 head of cattle, 63,256 sheep, and 6,873 pigs. Of these 407 cattle died, 168 sheep and 762 pigs; estimated loss on the whole, £154,469. These facts speak volumes, and require no comment on my part. As regards swine fever, we had only 21 outbreaks and 137 pigs affected, of which 104 were slaughtered by order of the local authority, and 33 died. This shows a reduction, as compared with the previous quarter, of 19 outbreaks and 150 animals. There were 6 outbreaks of sheep-scab, and 123 sheep affected.

PREVENTION OF PLEURO-PNEUMONIA IN CATTLE.

The Veterinary Journal, of this country, a safe authority on everything appertaining to diseases of animals, recently published an article about the prevention of pleuro-pneumonia in Holland, and stated that that country had got rid of this terrible bovine malady by inoculation, and the editor of the named paper therefore recommends the adoption of the Dutch system in Great Britain. The Veterinary Journal remarks, among other things, that when this disease first appeared to an alarming extent in this country, more than a dozen years ago, some experiments in this direction were carried out at Wrington. Cattle were inoculated, with the result that they got the disease in a mild form, and were afterwards free from contagion. Since that time very little progress has been made, but in the county of Edinburgh the experiments have developed into a recognized practice, and the consequence is that Midlothian is entirely free for the first time for forty years from pleuro-pneumonia. The Dutch Government have been enforcing the application of this protection, with the happiest results. The decrease in the number of cases has been rapid since the adoption of these measures, and from September 4 to October 2, the date of the last information, no case has been reported.

The measures adopted (says this paper) in Holland were voluntary inoculation where lung-plague was not in existence, but on infected farms slaughter of cattle really diseased, and compulsory inoculation of those yet showing no signs of the malady, had to be carried out. The value of inoculation, as on other occasions, has been most clearly demonstrated, and has been proved to be as certain a protection as vaccination is of human small-pox. The mortality following inoculation has been small, and no instance has been adduced of the disease having been spread or perpetuated by the operation. The experience of Holland dispels many notions entertained with regard to inoculation, and we may hope, if our government will not adopt similar measures, that they will at least cause experiments to be undertaken, which may prove to our farmers that there need be no losses from the devastating malady they so much dread.

THEODORE CANISIUS, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Bristol, December 31, 1880.

THE SHIP-BUILDING TRADE IN ENGLAND.

REPORT BY CONSUL JONES, OF NEWCASTLE-UPON-TYNE.

PROSPERITY OF THE SHIP-BUILDING TRADE.

Ship-building takes a prominent position among the industries of the United Kingdom, and is of leading importance in the north of England. Complaints are still heard from coal owners, chemical manufacturers, and others, but ship-builders are enjoying full measures of prosperity. Great activity prevailed in this trade during 1879, and the balance sheet of the year 1880 exhibits an improvement upon the satisfactory results of its predecessor.

CAUSES OF THIS PROSPERITY.

A variety of causes have contributed to place this industry in a more advantageous position than other branches of manufactures. In brief they may be stated as follows:

1st. Low price of labor consequent upon continued reductions during the late severe depressions.

2d. Low prices of coal, iron, and other materials employed in the construction of ships. Coal has not enhanced in value during the last two years of trade revival; iron has not done so to any considerable extent, and only by "fits and starts" rather than by what might be termed healthy steady gradations.

3d. The bad harvests of recent years in Europe, but especially in the United Kingdom, have created a demand for tonnage to bring food supplies from the more fortunate grain fields and pasturage of other countries, especially from the United States.

4th. During the Russo-Turkish war the harvests were neglected by both nations engaged in that conflict, and no corn could be spared for export. British merchants who had long been engaged in the grain trade with Cronstadt and Odessa were forced to open fresh communications. The old grooves were abandoned, and new ones made leading to the grain centers of the West. It is significant, as showing the complete revolution in this branch of over sea commerce that, a few months ago, Tyne steamers were employed in carrying American wheat from Liverpool to the Russian capital. Trade lines have been altered; circumstances contributed largely to the change; American enterprise, English indisposition again to form new connections in the East, and the commercial integrity which is found on both sides of the Atlantic, will establish this commercial intercourse upon a safe and permanent foundation.

5th. This altered condition of things necessitated different carrying power. Larger and more powerful steamers were required for the American than those which answered the purpose for the Russian trade; therefore new steamers were built. Moreover, recently-invented fuel-saving machinery and labor-saving appliances act as a premium upon ship-building. Newly-built steamers make handsome profits in a trade where the old vessels lose money.

To-day the ship-building ports are full of orders, and the future of the trade looks bright and promising. It is predicted that, should the

French Senate indorse the measure passed by the lower House,* granting bounty to French ship-owners, a still further impetus, with increased prosperity, will be added to the ship-building trade of the United Kingdom.

STEEL VS. IRON SHIPS.

Wooden vessels, and even iron sailing ships, are no longer in demand; the number built during 1880 being unimportant and required for special trades. Steel, on the other hand, is daily increasing in favor; some builders declare it to be the building material of the future. But with all the recent improvements in steel manufacture, that material is still too costly to supersede iron. Twenty-five years ago Messrs. Mitchell & Co., a firm on the Tyne, built a small steel steamer to navigate Russian rivers. Last year the same builders launched six, and this year, 1880, ten large steamers. This brief history of the steel ship-building trade of a single firm fairly represents the growing feeling in favor of the lighter but more costly metal.

INCREASED TONNAGE.

Increasing tonnage is a noteworthy fact, represented by the following tables. For the sake of brevity I will only refer to the Tyne, and allow the figures to demonstrate the parallel in other ports. It will be observed that the Tyne built 21 fewer steamers, but an increased tonnage of 10,239 tons during 1880 as compared with 1879.

STEAMSHIPS FOR THE AMERICAN TRADE.

A large proportion of the ships represented by the following figures were built for the American trade. The Roxburgh Castle was launched into the Wear-Sunderland, last May, and has been profitably engaged, plying between the Tyne and New York, carrying goods and passengers from her first voyage. The Northern, recently finished in the Tyne, also enters the American trade. This steamer possesses two or three specialities which deserve notice. Her boilers are made of steel plates capable of withstanding a working pressure of 115 pounds to the square inch. The compound cylinders of the engines are of small diameter, viz, 26 inches and 56 inches, while the stroke of the piston is 5 feet. The results expected from the engines of the Northern are great economy in working.

This direct ocean communication between the Tyne and American ports is a trade in which the writer has taken a deep interest, and he borrows the opportunity to say here, that *at least one* weekly line of steamers running from this river to New York are among the more than probable events of next spring.

Vessels built on the northeast coast during 1879 *and* 1880.

Where built.	1879.		1880.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
Tyne	130	139, 843	109	149, 082
Wear	65	92, 176	77	116, 227
Tees	25	31, 756	38	48, 506

* For a translation of this French shipping bill, see Consular Reports for January, 1881, p. 189.

ON THE TYNE.

No.	Name of firms.	Vessels.	Horse-power.	Tons.
1	Palmer's Ship-building Company	25	4,010	38,117
2	Messrs. C. Mitchell & Co	21	3,990	26,164
3	Messrs. A. Leslie & Co	10	2,400	20,519
4	Messrs. J. Redhead & Co	12	1,330	13,777
5	Tyne Iron Shipbuilding Company	7	1,180	12,481
6	Messrs. Schlesinger, Davis & Co	10	1,410	11,952
7	Messrs. Wigham, Richardson & Co	6	1,685	10,757
8	Messrs. Swan & Hunter	6	1,099	10,467
9	Messrs. T. & W. Smith	3	600	4,062
10	Mr. J. T. Eltringham	6	370	435
11	Mr. J. P. Rennoldson	3	220	371
	Total	109	18,384	149,952

ON THE WEAR.

1	Messrs. J. L. Thompson & Sons	11	1,670	17,880
2	Messrs. Short Brothers	10	1,790	17,371
3	Mr. James Laing	10	1,700	16,829
4	Messrs. W. Dexford & Sons	7	1,530	16,132
5	Messrs. Bartram, Haswell & Co	6	1,020	10,473
6	Mr. Robert Thompson	7	1,142	10,471
7	Messrs. Osbourne, Graham & Co	8	715	6,374
8	Messrs. John Blumer & Co	5	610	5,737
9	Messrs. W. Pickersgill & Sons	4	330	4,036
10	Messrs. S. O. Austin & Son	4	499	4,661
11	Mr. R. Foster	2	.....	2,972
12	Strand Sliperay Company	2	195	1,911
13	Sunderland Ship-building Company	1	160	1,480
	Total	77	11,361	116,227

ON THE TEES.

1	Messrs. Raylton, Dixon & Co	15	1,810	18,016
2	Messrs. Richardson, Duck & Co	15	1,240	16,946
3	Messrs. Pearse & Co	7	1,380	12,955
4	Messrs. R. Craggs & Son	1	75	589
	Total	38	4,505	48,506

EVAN R. JONES, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE, *Newcastle-upon-Tyne, December* 31, 1880.

NOTE.—Although Consul Jones does not specify the different classes of vessels in his very interesting tables, it would seem from the tenor of his report that all or nearly all the tonnage represented therein refers to steam tonnage.

TRADE OF BRISTOL WITH THE UNITED STATES.

REPORT BY CONSUL CANISIUS.

The export of merchandise from my consular district to the United States during the past quarter amounted to $43,176.15, or $2,026.14 less than during the same quarter of the preceding year. The import into Bristol Harbor from the United States is, however, increasing from year to year, because grain and other agricultural products are now almost exclusively bought in the United States by the Bristol merchants. Formerly a very great quantity of grain was purchased by large local houses in the East, especially in South Russia and several Danubian countries, but now the landing of wheat or Indian corn from these Eastern countries is of very rare occurrence.

I have endeavored to keep a record of the quantities of all the goods landed here during the last three months. I am not able to give the *value* of the same, but give the *quantities* of all the merchandise purchased in the American markets and discharged at the Bristol docks, to which two new docks, at Avonmouth and Portishead, have been added; the dock dues thereof being very low. Of these I reported on a former occasion to the State Department and to the New York Chamber of Commerce. The last-named docks—Avonmouth and Portishead—are in the hands of private companies, and their competition with the city docks has caused such a great reduction of the dock-rates that the arrivals of vessels in the city limits are much less frequent now than formerly.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

The import of American merchandise is already very large, and must now necessarily increase. During my official residence here the import of American goods has more than doubled; and, as the commercial connections of all the leading local houses with the United States are exceedingly good, I doubt not that in the future, also, it will not only continue but surely increase.

The export of merchandise from Bristol to the United States is still decreasing. The principal goods shipped from here to the States during the last three months are books, bricks, miners' caps, cattle, cheese, chemicals, clay, chocolate, drugs, horses, railroad iron, nets and twine, oil-cloth, paper-stock, rugs, salt, skins, &c., the value of which is given in the annexed statement:

Statement showing the value of declared exports from the consular district of Bristol to the United States of America during the quarter ending December 31, 1880.

Books	$3,550 18
Bricks	346 25
Caps (miners')	416 25
Cattle	150 00
Cheese	676 27
Chemicals	9,276 54
Chocolate	3,737 54
Clay	1,037 75
Drugs	566 56
Horses	460 00
Iron (railroad)	2,262 83
Miscellaneous	317 00
Nets and twine	2,593 01
Oil-cloth	4,660 97
Paper-stock	754 68
Rugs	351 50
Salt	3,159 10
Skins	8,858 72
Total	43,176 15
Same quarter preceding year	45,202 29
Decrease	2,026 14

One single article—not to mention wheat, corn, or flour—among the fifty articles imported into Bristol from the States alone greatly exceeds in value all the goods exported from my consular district to the United States, and that article is cheese, of which not less than 48,734 boxes were brought from our country to this place during the last three months.

But I here desire to give nearly all the articles and quantities of mer-

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chandise imported into Bristol from the United States, which will afford a good view of the commercial business which is now going on between Bristol and the United States:

Imports from the United States during the last quarter of 1880.

Ale	barrels	35
Apples	do	14,546
Bacon	boxes	4,839
Barley meal	sacks	399
Beef (fresh)	tierces	217
Bellies	do	125
Butter	tubs	15,468
Butterine	do	1,000
Canned goods	cases	1,796
Cereals	do	135
Cheese	boxes	48,734
Clocks	cases	194
Clover seed	bags	300
Flour	barrels	6,203
Flour	sacks	27,402
Gasoline	cases	6,750
Grape-sugar	barrels	951
Grease	do	160
Hams	boxes	352
Hardware	do	5
Lard	pails	22,088
Lard	racks	2,200
Leather	bales	343
Logwood	tons	50
Meat (canned)	cases	13,017
Maize	cwts	432,977
Naphtha	barrels	12,884
Oatmeal	bags	110
Oil	barrels	961
Oil-cake	sacks	45,057
Organs		12
Oysters	barrels	286
Pease	do	50
Petroleum	do	28,431
Pork	tierces	537
Resin	barrels	11,895
Stearine	do	133
Spokes	cases	80
Sugar	barrels	1,000
Tallow	do	744
Tobacco	hogsheads	547
Tongue	barrels	121
Turpentine	do	2,355
Varnish	do	40
Wheat	cwt	574,657
Woodware	cases	278

AMERICAN APPLES—A NEW ARTICLE OF IMPORT.

Green apples have become an article of import here to a very great extent. Three years ago I pointed out to several Bristol firms that it would be a very remunerative undertaking to import green apples into Bristol, as they could be bought in the American markets at a very low price, while at the same time those grown in New York, New Jersey, or even in the West, surpassed by far the apples grown in this country, in size, beauty, and quality. The English apples are, pippins excepted, very bad, fit only for cider and cooking purposes. The sky of this island is generally too much overcast to allow the sun's rays to develop the saccharine properties of this noble fruit, which consequently remains unsuitable for the table. During the last three or four years I have im-

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ported from New York all the apples for my family's use, such as Baldwins, &c., with such perfect success and so cheaply that I felt justified in directing the attention of several great firms of this city to my small private success. These firms then began to import considerable quantities of apples into Bristol from the United States, and with such remarkable success and profit that this year other firms also have taken hold of this branch of trade, which, though still in its infancy, already amounts to the enormous sum of 14,548 barrels during the last three months. The United States will, in future, supply the whole of Great Britain with apples.

To further this trade our farmers and horticulturists ought to make it a special study which kinds are best adapted for export in regard to taste and durability, as well as good looks. In past times France sent large quantities of fruit to England, but if our scientific horticulturists will take what I have here intimated into their special consideration, France will in the future be relieved to a great extent of supplying the English markets with fruits, except plums, apricots, and pears. Our country will supply more than all the apples that are wanted here if we can send qualities that do not easily decay and are excellent in taste and appearance.

IMPORT OF LIVE STOCK.

The import of live stock was formerly not carried on during the winter months, but now it is. During the last three months a considerable number of live beeves, as well as sheep, was brought to this port, and it appears to me that the trade will not be interrupted even by the remaining part of this season. During the coming spring, summer, and autumn, this trade, so important to our country, will greatly increase, and be even larger than during the year ending to-day. The total number of live stock landed at Bristol from the United States during the last three months was as follows: Steers, 1,293; sheep, 1,990; hogs, 179.

It is not probable that the United States will again be given the privilege of sending her live cattle into the interior of Great Britian, for even the honorable chamberlain, the cabinet member who has this matter under his special charge, is against granting the United States the said privilege, and thus all the beeves, and even sheep, have to be slaughtered at their *port of landing*. On account of its nearness to London and Birmingham, Bristol is a first-rate landing place for live stock, because railways run right to the docks and can take the carcases to the markets of the great cities in a few hours.

THEODORE CANISIUS, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Bristol, December 31, 1880.

LABOR AND INDUSTRIES OF ITALY.

REPORT BY CONSUL RICE, OF LEGHORN.

Mr. Victor Ellena has recently published a work upon the laboring population of Italy, in which he represents the division of labor among the various industries by the following figures. They are so interesting in themselves, and throughout so accurate, that I have made a translation of them for publication in the next issue of Commercial Relations.

Working men practicing a trade alone or at their own residences are not included:

Statement showing the industries of Italy and the labor engaged therein.

Industries.	Labor employed.				
	Males.	Females.	Children.	Total.	Per 1,000.
Silk	15,692	120,428	64,273	200,393	7.15
Cotton	15,558	27,309	11,174	54,041	1.93
Woolen	12,544	7,765	4,621	24,930	.89
Linen	4,578	5,959	2,247	12,784	.36
Ropes	5,838	787	1,775	8,400	.30
Mixed fabrics	2,185	2,530	700	5,475	.20
Felt hats	3,869	887	561	5,317	.19
Tannery	9,487	125	122	10,734	.38
Candles	280	241	36	557	.02
Seed oil	1,285	61	89	1,435	.05
Soap	1,770	135	179	2,084	.07
Paper	7,412	7,144	2,756	17,312	.60
Railway shops	6,376	3	24	6,403	.23
Tobacco	1,947	13,707	.....	15,654	.53
Government works	14,741	1,405	466	16,612	.56

The foregoing labor is distributed throughout the different provinces of Italy, as follows:

Provinces.	Population.	Working class.	Men.	Women.	Children.	Per 1,000.
Piedmont	3,054,071	75,156	22,616	40,388	12,151	24.60
Liguria	881,043	13,037	6,723	4,799	1,515	14.80
Lombardy	3,622,986	161,320	24,438	78,743	58,139	44.53
Venice	2,799,265	36,074	11,141	21,257	4,276	13.14
Emilia	2,186,995	11,835	4,448	6,114	1,273	5.41
Umbria	570,519	2,474	1,111	1,109	254	4.34
Marches	941,344	9,736	2,433	6,288	1,005	10.34
Tuscany	2,209,494	23,730	7,759	11,386	4,585	10.74
Roman Provinces	845,443	4,416	2,116	1,568	731	5.22
Abruzzi	1,325,504	883	569	123	111	.61
Campania	2,861,590	28,939	14,234	10,608	4,097	10.12
Puglie	1,506,289	2,226	1,617	308	301	1.48
Basilicate	528,514	120	96	1	23	.23
Calabria	1,254,059	4,312	1,217	2,079	411	3.44
Sicily	2,769,178	6,776	2,711	2,821	1,194	2.43
Sardinia	673,401	627	332	283	12	.95

In fact, out of a population of 28,010,695 souls (as per census of 1878) there are 382,131 persons engaged in manufacturing industries as above, namely, 103,562 men, 188,486 women, and 90,083 children. That makes 13.64 per thousand of the inhabitants; a very low figure, which, however, will appear less so when it is taken into consideration that Italy is an essentially agricultural country, and that isolated small workshops occupy many more working people than large factories. The statistics themselves are only partial. For instance, Sicily employs nearly 17,000 men in the sulphur industry, and Sardinia over 10,000 in the lead and zinc mines, none of whom are included in the foregoing tables.

Of the 382,131 persons above referred to, 278,569 are women and children; but no law exists regulating their work.

WILLIAM T. RICE.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Leghorn, November 22, 1880.

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CARRARA MARBLE.

REPORT BY CONSUL WELCH.

I have the honor, in accordance with instructions, to report upon the trade in Carrara marble, which is the only trade of this consular district. The report must be a very short one, for, besides the knowledge which I have obtained in conversation with the principal exporters, I have but little to communicate—the trade being extremely dull just now.

Carrara marble is a luxury, and the demand for it depends upon the condition of "the times" in the various countries to which it is exported. The condition of the world has been such that the only country with which dealers in Carrara marble have had good trade this year is the United States. Some of my former dispatches have spoken of the extraordinary exportation of block marble during the first half of the year. Just at present, however, trade is dull, even with the United States. As I predicted would be the case, our markets are overstocked with Italian marble to such an extent that it will take several months to exhaust the supply. Meanwhile there is very little business doing with the United States.

I inclose a statement of the exportation of Carrara marble for the year ending December 31, 1879, together with a comparative statement of the exportation from 1872 to 1880.

When the statement is compiled for 1880 I fancy that the figures will be considerably in excess of those of last year, owing to the extraordinary shipment to the United States during the early part of the year.

ROBERT W. WELCH, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Carrara, October 31, 1880.

Statement of the exportation of marble from the consular district of Carrara in the year 1879.

	Tons.
Block marble	76,370
Sawed marble	20,526
Worked marble	37,538
Total	134,434

Statement of the exportation of marble of all kinds from 1872 *to* 1880.

	Tons.
1872	116,061
1873	117,115
1874	117,282
1875	121,774
1876	103,511
1877	118,938
1878	105,019
1879	134,434

The above statements are taken from the Corriere Carrarese.

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RUSSIAN VIEW OF AMERICAN FINANCES.

REPORT BY MINISTER FOSTER, OF ST. PETERSBURG.

I inclose herewith a translation of an extract from an editorial in the semi-official organ, the Journal de St. Petersburg, giving a commercial and financial review of the year just closing. While there are one or two errors in figures, it will, nevertheless, be found of interest as indicating the high estimate of the financial standing of the United States in official and commercial circles of this capital.

JOHN W. FOSTER,
Minister.

LEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES,
St. Petersburg, December 24, 1880.

FINANCIAL REVIEW.

[Inclosure in Minister Foster's report.]

[From Journal de St. Petersburg, December 24, 1880.]

* * * * * * *

This tendency to the reduction of interest is one of the most interesting phenomena of our times. The countries whose credit is of the very first order—France, England, and the United States—see their government funds at a very high rate; English consols at about 100; the French 5 per cents at 86; the American 4 per cents at 115. Small capitalists, who, above all, seek security, are greatly embarrassed; their annual revenue, if they make their investments in securities of this kind, is very slender; one should have a fortune to be a holder of English consols. Such a condition of things cannot be otherwise than favorable to Russian bonds, which at present quotations produce a good return. The credit of Russia is well established. With the maintenance of peace, if we devote ourselves to creating new resources for the state by the introduction of imposts not now existing, the credit will be still better.

The most wonderful example of national prosperity is that which the United States furnish. While in Europe each state does not cease to contract new obligations, to increase the burden of debt already so heavy, the United States year by year diminish the weight of theirs; they do it rapidly, about $150,000,000 through the budget. From the 30th of June, 1879, to the 30th of June, 1880, they have redeemed $147,000,000 by means of the excess of the budget. With natural resources almost unlimited, the absence of military expenses (the Army of the United States does not exceed 25,000 men), with abundant crops, a constant flow of immigration, a policy of non-intervention—these are the causes of this prosperity.

What a contrast between the year 1880 and the year 1865! In 1865 a people half ruined, with its bonds at 48 per cent. and a depreciated paper currency; 1880, a country whose credit rivals that of Great Britain. The American Republic has advanced with the stride of a giant. Some time ago the conversion of the 6 per cents. into 5 per cents; appeared a meritorious work. The emission of the 4 per cents. was made with apprehension; and now the question is 3½ per cent., if not even 3 per cent. Six hundred and eighty-seven millions of dollars of the public debt fall due next year. This is the gigantic conversion which the United States have in view. Mr. Sherman expects to redeem $100,000,000 by means of the excess of the public revenue. He proposes to emit $800,000,000 in Treasury notes, the denomination of the lowest being $20, and redeemable in ten years. Besides he will emit $800,000,000 of bonds, which shall be sold at par and bear a maximum interest of 3.65 per cent., guaranteed against reduction for fifteen years.

[The editor has not correctly comprehended the Secretary of the Treasury's proposition to Congress, on account of the confused way in which it was transmitted by the cable to the European press.—J. W. F.]

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In this way the American Secretary hopes to leave the debt in a form which will permit of its gradual extinction. Not content with this, he has in view the reduction of duties; he proposes to abolish every internal tax except those upon spirits and tobacco. The English, who suffer from the protective system which prevails in the United States, regret that Mr. Sherman has not rather diminished the customs duties.

ABOLITION OF THE EXCISE TAX ON SALT IN RUSSIA.

REPORT BY MINISTER FOSTER, OF ST. PETERSBURG.

The Emperor returned to this capital on the 3d instant, from Livadia, with his suite and such of the cabinet ministers as had been in attendance on him during his residence in the Crimea. His first important official act after his return has been the issuance of an ukase directing the abolition of the excise tax on salt, as also a reduction of the customs duty, of which a translation is inclosed.

The measure has been considerably discussed in advance, and the ukase of the Emperor is regarded as one of the important events of his reign, both in an economic and political sense.

Its economic effect may be better understood by a brief reference to the history and present status of the salt tax and the government control of the sale of this commodity. It has from the early days of the empire been regarded as not only a proper subject for taxation, but of governmental merchandise. In the reign of Peter the Great the government appropriated to itself the exclusive right of its sale; and during the eighteenth century the salt tax was considered as a special revenue of the imperial court; its sale was made a monopoly, the price was fixed, all the mines and works were purchased and operated by the government, and the supply was disbursed through city and town authorities in the various provinces. At times there has been absolute prohibition against foreign importation of salt. In the reign of Alexander I the working of the mines was under the direction of one ministry (the interior), and the sale controlled by another (finance), and at other times the manufacturing and sale were combined in one. In 1811 private sale was authorized on condition that the merchants would obtain their supply from the government depots, and the price fixed was one rouble (73 cents) per pood (36 pounds).

In 1862 the system of excise was introduced and the greater part of the mines and works were transferred from the government to private parties by lease or sale. The tax of late years has varied, according to quality and locality, from 5 to 30 copecks (3¾ to 22 cents) per pood. The introduction of the excise system and abolition of government monopoly have improved the quality, doubled the consumption, and furnished a better revenue to the government. Of late years the excise tax has yielded from six to twelve millions of roubles. Owing to the government interest in the mines and the high rate of excise, it has been regarded as necessary to impose the high duty on foreign salt of 60 per cent., which last year yielded a revenue of near three millions of dollars.

It will thus be seen that this article of prime necessity has been kept in an abnormal condition, the sale constantly regulated by the government, and so high a tax levied upon it that, notwithstanding the country is abundantly supplied with it by nature, even now its cost is from $1 to $2 per 100 pounds by the quantity; and it has proven a heavy weight upon the people and various industries, as the Emperor's ukase recognizes. This relief has been one of the economic measures most strongly

urged upon the government, and in yielding to the popular petition for relief it will be seen that the Emperor expresses the hope that it "will contribute to reduce the burdens of the poorest of the population" and benefit the several industries named.

It will be necessary to supply the deficit which this abolition will occasion the national treasury from some other source, as the state of the government finances will not allow of so heavy a loss, and it is anticipated that the new taxation will be levied in such a way as not to continue a weight upon the lower classes.

The political significance of this act of the Emperor is observed with enthusiastic terms with which it is received by the Russian press, by which it is styled "one of the greatest benefactions which its monarch has bestowed upon Russia"—"a reform which delivers the people from an ancient burden," and which, "effected in this year of dearth, will probably bring about the era of business revival in Russia." In itself the repeal of the excise tax on salt would hardly seem to justify such high estimates of its beneficent results. But the present condition of the nation is somewhat exceptional. A large portion of the country has been afflicted with partial and in some places total failure of crops. Famine is threatening millions of people. Commerce and finances are deranged. The Nihilistic movement inspires a certain degree of uncertainty. The press asks for more freedom. Legislative and administrative reforms are urged. In this state of the public mind such a measure as that stated, couched in the kindly language of the ukase, is hailed as a token of the solicitude which the Emperor bears for his people, and recalls to them the emancipation and judicial reform acts, which distinguished the earlier days of his reign. It is also interpreted as an index of the new influence which is controlling the administration, in which the Czarewitch is understood to be consulted, and which has its most prominent representative in the new minister of the interior, General Melikoff.

While it is hardly expected that any sweeping measures of reform are contemplated which would tend to change the existing order of government, it is plain that a more liberal and conciliatory spirit is directing affairs. For these reasons, as much as for the actual relief which it brings, is the abolition of the salt excise regarded as an important event.

JOHN W. FOSTER,
Minister.

LEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES,
St. Petersburg, December 8, 1880.

TRADE OF SWEDEN AND NORWAY WITH THE UNITED STATES.

REPORT BY MR. STEVENS, MINISTER RESIDENT AT STOCKHOLM.

It may be considered within the line of my official duty to give the Secretary of State a condensed statement of what has been the condition of business in Sweden and Norway, and the general aspect of the commercial relations of these countries with the United States, during the year nearly at its close. The statistical facts pertaining to the direct trade have been received undoubtedly from our consuls in Sweden and Norway. I will make a more general and comprehensive communication.

The agricultural products of the present year show an increase in quantity and value over those of 1879. The lumber trade, which constitutes so important a part of the commercial exports of the two countries, has

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also shown a more healthy activity. The improved condition of business in England has had some effect in this regard, for the timber exports of Sweden and Norway go largely to Great Britain. The iron interests are in a better condition than they were twelve months since. This improvement has been caused chiefly by the general prosperity and the demand for iron in the United States. The number of business failures in the two countries during the year have not been large, and the general financial aspect is more encouraging than it was at the close of last year.

The official figures of the direct trade with the United States will not be published by this government until late in the coming year. They will be but a very imperfect measure and indication of the amount of United States products which are purchased and consumed in these countries. In my communication to the Secretary of State, of October, 1878, I stated the total of United States products which by direct and indirect trade reached Sweden and Norway during the year ending with that date to be $4,429,000. That estimate was carefully made up from data deemed reliable. I am confident that the amount of United States exports brought into the two countries in 1880 is greater than in 1878, and probably larger than in any preceding year. American goods and food products in the shops of the principal cities and towns show a marked increase and prominence. A large proportion of the United States exports which reach these countries are first brought to England or Germany, and thus do not show in the United States official tables as exported to Sweden and Norway. It is obviously to the disadvantage of the United States and of these countries that more of this trade is not direct, and is compelled to encounter so many expensive obstructions in the transit. The percentage of profits to the middlemen, the delays and expense of transshipment from one line of steamers to another, the increased cost of freights, all tend to make the price which the consumer pays for the articles much in excess of what the English and German consumers of the same article pay. Direct trade by a line of steamers, obviating delays, the necessity of middlemen, the expense of breaking bulk, &c., would decidedly lessen the price of the goods to the Scandinavian purchasers and consumers, and at the same time would increase the volume of the articles demanded, and thus take more cash, or its equivalent, to the United States.

Considering the extended territorial area of Sweden and Norway, the conditions are exceedingly favorable for the concentration of their trade with the United States for the support of a line of steamers running direct. Gottenburg is the Liverpool of Sweden. It is a convenient and available gateway to direct commerce with the United States. It has an admirable harbor, and its means and facilities for handling a large commerce cheaply are very superior. By the Gotha Canal, which is large enough for steamers, it has access by the Swedish Lakes to a large portion of the interior of the country, as well as to the Baltic. The cost of freight transit on small steamers, which are managed with signal economy, running through the canals and lakes, of which Gottenburg is the key, greatly favor that port to be the gateway to direct trade with the United States. That city has also the advantage of a system of railroads which unite it with Stockholm and Christiania, and thus has competing lines of water and land transit with the chief commercial centers of more than six millions of people. To support a line of steamers direct to the United States from Gottenburg there is the trade which now comes largely through Germany and England. The amount of this has been already indicated.

From Sweden and Norway a line of steamers would take some freight and this would be added to by that obtainable at intermediate ports. But the carrying of passengers would be undoubtedly the large available resource for compensating the running of the steamers to the United States. During the present year nearly 60,000 emigrants from Sweden and Norway have gone to the United States, chiefly via England and Germany. The emigrants have paid for their transport fully $1,800,000. This emigration is not likely to be so large every year to come. Yet there are the most substantial reasons to believe that it will not be inconsiderable for an extended period in the future. The regular annual increase of population in these countries is sufficient to allow of a constant augmentation of their permanent inhabitants, and at the same time furnish an emigration to the United States annually to the extent of 30,000 or 40,000.

It is proper to remark in this connection that the present Swedish and Norwegian emigration is of a superior class. If in some rare instances the inefficient and disabled have been aided by private liberality to cross the Atlantic, the most of those who emigrate are among the younger, the more resolute, and effective persons for labor and industry, which cannot fail to aid much in developing the sections of the United States in which they seek their homes. In point of health, vigor, and enterprise they are above the average of the agricultural and other laborers of the vigorous race to which they belong. It is estimated that these emigrants of 1880 have taken with them to their adopted country nearly $6,000,000—an estimate which may be too large.

A direct line of steamers from Gottenburg would have this large stream of emigration to draw from. And so numerous is the Scandinavian population now residing in the United States that the numbers who visit their mother country are considerable, and likely to increase in the future. To supply the manifest want of direct and expeditious steam transit, which I have briefly stated in this communication, it is reliably stated in the Swedish newspapers that the experiment is about to be tried by a German firm or association, and that the first steamer, of 4,100 tons measurement, will make its first voyage in January from Gottenburg to New York. The American citizen, loving his country and desirous of its marine and commercial prosperity, would like to see a line of superb ocean steamers on this route under his country's flag. In default of such a desideratum, a successful and well-managed line under foreign colors would be advantageous to the United States and Scandinavia.

JOHN S. STEVENS,
Minister Resident.

UNITED STATES LEGATION,
Stockholm, November 30, 1880.

NORWEGIAN MERCHANT MARINE.

REPORT BY CONSUL GADE, OF CHRISTIANIA.

The remarkable rise of the Norwegian mercantile marine in this century dates from the year 1826, when, by a treaty concluded between the united kingdoms of Norway and Sweden and Great Britain, Norwegian vessels were allowed to carry Swedish products to British ports. This permission rested on the presumption that the two kingdoms, po-

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litically united since 1814, were in economic matters also to be considered as one country in their relations with foreign nations.

Again, in 1842, when England repealed the navigation act, the Norwegian marine received a fresh impulse; since then it has made such rapid progress that the tonnage of Norway now ranks third among the seafaring nations of the world. According to the latest statistical returns, embracing the aggregate tonnage of sailing vessels and steamers belonging to the merchant marine,* Great Britain and Ireland have 6,330,000 tons, The United States 3,751,000 tons, Norway 1,192,000 tons, Germany 1,118,000 tons, Italy 1,068,000 tons, and France 989,000 tons.

But, though the foregoing figures may be regarded with surprise, as testifying to the energy and high maritime qualities of a people hardly numbering 2,000,000, they do not give a correct idea of the value of Norwegian merchant vessels, of which a large majority are sailing ships. Norway ranks very low in steam tonnage, having but 44,000 tons of steamers, and coming after Italy with 58,000 tons, Holland with 58,000 tons, Austria with 57,000 tons, and Denmark with 45,000 tons.

In steam tonnage, she is only the twelfth among the nations; and, while steamers now constitute a third part of the mercantile marines of England and of the United States, they form only a twenty-seventh of the aggregate Norwegian tonnage.

This disproportion between steam and sail has lately been a standing subject of public discussion in this country, which derives its chief revenue from its vessels engaged in the carrying trade all over the world. Norwegian shipping has yielded small profits for some years, and constant complaints are heard of sailing vessels being forced out of the market by the increasing number of steamers everywhere. At the same time, the neighboring countries of Sweden and Denmark, which are far behind Norway in tonnage, have, during the few last years, increased their steamers in a much larger proportion than this country, so that they are now in advance of Norway in that respect.

The staunch adherence to sailing vessels, which are still built in the country and bought from abroad, though to a less extent than some years ago, and the great disproportion between steamers and sailing ships in the Norwegian marine, are, in a part, a consequence of a lack of sufficient capital for building large steamers suitable for the carrying trade. English, German, and French ship-owners agree in stating that steamers of 2,500 to 3,500 tons are the most profitable, and that such vessels have, for the last ten years, yielded a profit of 20 to 30 per cent. It now becomes a necessity for Norwegian ship-owners to procure suitable steamers if they desire to maintain their prominent position among maritime nations and not witness the decline of an industry which is of paramount importance for the whole country.

Among Norwegian cities Bergen alone has shown any energy in converting its sailing fleet into steamers, whereas this city, which is much wealthier, and, through its large import trade, maintains a lively intercourse with almost every European country, possesses a relatively small fleet of steamers.

GERHARD GADE, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Christiania, December 9, 1880.

* See Note by the Department, which follows this report.

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NOTE BY THE DEPARTMENT OF STATE.

MERCHANT MARINE.

As the merchant marine of a country may be defined as that portion of its sea-going shipping which plies to and from foreign countries and colonies, it is necessary to distinguish between such shipping and that which is engaged in the home trade, internal and coastwise, if we would clearly understand the relative positions of the several countries in this regard. The consul at Christiania, following the example of writers in general, it may be said, has failed to distinguish between the "merchant marine" and the "total shipping" of the several countries given in his estimate; hence this note by the Department defining the true meaning of "merchant marine" and showing the relative strength of that of the countries mentioned.

British shipping is divided into three classes, viz, shipping engaged in the "*home trade*," shipping engaged partly in the "*home and foreign trade*," and shipping engaged wholly in the "*foreign trade*." River steamers are not included in these classifications.

American shipping is classified by Treasury Department, as follows: "*Registered*," "*Enrolled*," and "*Licensed*." The "registered" embraces all vessels engaged in the "foreign trade"; the "enrolled" embraces all vessels of 20 tons and upwards engaged in the "coasting trade"; and "licensed" embraces all vessels under 20 tons engaged in the "coast trade" and "cod and mackerel fisheries."

French shipping is classified as follows: "Foreign trade," "Coast trade," "Fisheries," "Pilot boats, tugs, yachts, &c."

Of *German and Italian shipping* it does not seem clear that any separation is made. It is probable, therefore, that what is called their "merchant marine" embraces vessels engaged in the coast trade and fisheries.

The following detailed statements of the total shipping of the countries given, distinguishing, as far as possible, the several classifications, will enable the reader to form a clearer conception of the comparative condition of the "merchant marine" of the principal nations than that given in the unclassified, but very interesting, report of Consul Gade.

BRITISH SHIPPING, 1879.

Engaged in—	Sailing.	Steam.	Total.
	Tons.	*Tons.*	*Tons.*
The home trade	708,082	240,070	948,152
Both the home and foreign trade	128,027	84,496	212,523
The foreign trade	3,082,567	2,006,591	5,089,158
Total	3,918,676	2,331,157	6,249,833

AMERICAN SHIPPING, 1879.

Foreign trade	1,335,210	156,323	1,491,533
Coast trade	1,598,793	1,012,810	2,611,603
Fisheries	59,426	7,039	66,465
Total	2,993,429	1,176,172	4,169,601

FRENCH SHIPPING, 1879.

Foreign trade	Not distinguished.	Not distinguished.	650,089
Coast trade	....do	....do	168,621
Fisheries, &c	....do	....do	127,867
Total	....	....	946,568

Statement showing the merchant-marine—vessels engaged wholly in the foreign trade—of the principal countries.

Countries.	Sail.	Steam.	Total.
	Tons.	*Tons.*	*Tons.*
1. Great Britain	3, 082, 567	2, 006, 591	5, 089, 158
2. The United States	1, 335, 210	156, 323	1, 491, 000
3. Norway*	1, 148, 000	44, 000	1, 192, 000
4. Germany*	974, 943	196, 343	1, 129, 129
5. Italy*	979, 519	63, 029	1, 042, 548
6. France†			650, 080
Aggregate			10, 593, 915

*As before stated; no classification of the shipping of Norway, Germany, and Italy is reported.
†The total steam tonnage of France is 260,000 tons, but how much thereof is employed in the coasting trade, or how much in the foreign trade, is not shown.

The foregoing statement shows that while the merchant marine of the United States is second in point of tonnage, it owes this position to its comparatively large sailing tonnage, for in steam tonnage it falls below Germany, and, most likely, below France. The steam marine tonnage of England is as 13 to 1, compared to that of the United States, while the sailing tonnage of England is only as 2¼ to 1 of the United States.

MINING AND METALLURGY IN SWEDEN.

REPORT BY CONSUL OPPENHEIM, OF GOTTENBURG.

The number of iron mines worked during the year 1879 was 426. For 304 of this number, producing mountain ore, the output was 15,115,184 Swedish centners;* besides which the ore-beds in Jönköpings and in Kronobergs Län yielded 67,151 centners lake and bog ore.

The provinces in which the greatest output took place were Örebro Län, with 4,084,414 centners; Westmannlands Län, with 3,402,917 centners; Kopparsberg Län, with 2,824,578 centners; Wennlands Län, with 2,077,540 centners; and Upsala Län, with 1,444,437 centners.

The number of iron blast-furnaces in operation during the year was 182, of which one was a double stock furnace. The aggregate of blasting-time for the whole number was 35,088 days, thus giving an average of nearly 193 days to each furnace; the total product rendered 8,058,494 Swedish centners, in which are included 144,420 centners of cast-iron manufactures cast directly from the furnace-flow. The largest product from any one establishment was turned out at the Hofors Iron Works, in Gefleborgs Län, reaching 217,803 centners for the year, with three furnaces in use. Besides the above mentioned 144,420 centners of cast-iron goods turned out from the furnaces direct, there were 254,755 centners of such goods produced at the foundries and casting-works.

During the year 1879 bar-iron making was carried on in 270 mills, in which 695 forges and forging-hearths were in operation; the total product of bar-iron reached 4,929,840 centners; there was also a production of 2,731,220 centners of wrought ingots. The establishments turning out the largest quantities are given thus:

Ramnäs Works, in Westmannland, 158,430 centners; Uddeholms Works, in Wennland, 158,352 centners; the Bofors and the Björkborns Mills, in Örebro, both together, 155,527 centners bar-iron, and also

*NOTE BY CONSUL OPPENHEIM.—The Swedish centner is equal to 93.712 pounds avoirdupois: the skälpund is equal to 0.739 pounds avoirdupois; the skälpund = 100 ort = 10,000 korn.

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10,450 centners rolled from ingots produced from other works; the Tuispängs and the Lotorps Mills, in Östergötland, together, 134,221 centners; Smedjebackens Works, in Kopparberg, 132,596 centners; the Ferna Works, in Westmannland, 112,741 centners.

The production of steel has been carried on at 27 establishments, and reached a total of 650,020 centners for the year.

There were 181 works engaged in the production of iron and steel manufactures, and the quantity of such goods produced during the year was 651,778 centners.

At the smelting and reproducing works for the scarcer metals there were turned out: of gold 7 skälpunds, 87 ort, and 30 korn; of silver, 3,188 skälpunds and 4 ort; of copper, 19,132 centners; of brass, 7,310 centners; of nickel products, 126 centners and 42 skälpunds; of nickelspeirs (arsenio-sulphide of nickel) 173 centners; 25 skälpunds raw nickel in slabs; and 433 centners and 16 skälpunds raw nickel in powder.

At the divers other metallurgical establishments the production has been as follows: rolled or hammered copper, 3,885 centners; cast manufactures other than iron, 1,000 centners; refined lead, 1,040 centners; pig-lead, 5,668 centners; sheet-lead, 5 centners and 21 skälpunds; zinc ore, 1,030,810 centners; cobalt ore, refined, 1,234 skälpunds; breensten (manganese superoxide), 300 centners; sulphur, 6,688 centners; copperas, 4,109 centners; vitriol (of iron), 3,060 centners; red ocher, 15,603 centners; alum, 6,153 centners; and black lead, 848 centners.

The marble manufactures produced had a value of 12,551.94 kreutzers.

The output of coal has been very nearly 97,684 tons. This coal is all mined in the extreme south of Sweden, chiefly at Höganäs and vicinity; it is very hard, and requires a very strong draught; it has not as yet been successfully employed for smelting purposes; its chief use at present is for locomotives and factory engines; it sells in the market at about the price of Scotch coal, being usually about 2*s.* less than Newcastle coal; the output this year is by far the largest ever reported.

There were 24,775 workmen employed in the mining and metallurgical industries during the year. The casualty list among the employés numbers 12 dead and 20 seriously injured.

ERNEST L. OPPENHEIM,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Gothenburg, December 21, 1880.

ENLARGEMENT OF AMERICAN TRADE IN EUROPE.

REPORT BY COMMERCIAL AGENT DE ZEYK, OF ST. GALLE, SWITZERLAND.

There are, I understand, two American firms at Hamburgh which confine themselves wholly to the importing of American goods; they send their traveling agents all over Europe, who canvas its remotest parts, carrying with them printed advertisements, illustrated catalogues, and full sets of samples, and who, judging from the abundant supply of American goods of all descriptions to be seen everywhere, have already reached the retail shops of even the smallest country town in these really distant parts of Switzerland.

This I consider altogether the best means for introducing American goods and produce into European markets; and should such importing firms not exist, I would by all means recommend their establishment,

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and at more than one seaport city, with well-stocked warehouses and with active agents constantly traveling for orders, because this is what, from the most extensive manufacturer down to the smallest specialist, every tradesman tries to do in Europe. One cannot go in a car, steamboat, or a coach without having such an agent for traveling companion, for the merchants are spoiled in our days to such a degree that they need not set out in order to find the latest improvements and styles; their signboard alone is sufficient to attract a swarm of agents, who are anxious to provide them, sometimes against their wishes, even, with a full assortment of goods.

Under these circumstances it is evident that if Americans want to compete in introducing their merchandise into European markets the best thing they can do is to send their agents to where the Europeans send theirs, in order to place their goods before the people, instead of expecting that, notwithstanding their over-abundant supply, the European merchants should go so far and call direct on American manufacturers.

Another way, besides the very useful publication and circulation of the American Exporter, American Mail and Export Journal, Scientific American, &c., I thought, would be to bring the American goods into notoriety by frequent and suitable publications in commercial journals abounding in every part of Europe, for which the manufacturers themselves should procure the necessary material and statistical items and place them at the disposal of consuls with the request to have them inserted in their leading papers, in the language of the country.

I cite here, for example, such an article, published November 12, in the St. Galle Journal of Commerce:

It is very interesting to notice the steady increase in the export of American pork-produce, especially during the last year, notwithstanding the constant rise of prices; thus, for example, the export of ham and bacon, during a period from November 1, 1879, to the beginning of October, 1880, reached nearly 750,000,000 pounds, which, when compared with that of the past season, shows an increase of 21,000,000 pounds, and that of lard, pork, and meats was also considerable. It is to be remarked that the area of the export trade extended itself also to ports which had, a few years before, imported none. The increase of demands in the above produce is particularly noticeable in Germany, Sweden, and the several ports of the Baltic Sea. The chief market for this produce is Chicago, where there were packed 2,500,000 hogs within the last eight months, from March till October.

I have submitted the above in the hope that they might coincide with the Department's views, as measures conducive to the enlargement of American trade.

A. I. DE ZEYK,
Commercial Agent.

UNITED STATES COMMERCIAL AGENCY,
St. Galle, November 12, 1880.

THE TOBACCO TRADE OF SWITZERLAND.

REPORT BY CONSUL ADAMS, OF GENEVA, ON THE TOBACCO TRADE OF SWITZERLAND, AND HOW TO INCREASE THE SALES OF AMERICAN TOBACCO THEREIN.

I inclose herewith two tables furnished me by the federal bureau of commerce and agriculture, giving the number of factories of tobacco and cigars in my district in 1878, and the imports and exports of tobacco for all Switzerland in 1876, 1877, 1878, and 1879. The director of the

bureau is unable to give values, or the origin of the imports and the destination of the exports. I find, however, that all the best varieties of leaf tobacco come from the United States, and, in smaller quantity, from South America, the inferior kinds coming from Germany. A good deal is grown here in the canton of Vaud for the inner wrappers of cheap cigars. This year the harvest has been abundant and good.

I think the importation of leaf tobacco from the United States might be increased if it were possible to lessen the cost of transportation, which is now mostly via Bremen and the German railways; or if a better article could be delivered at existing rates. The great obstacle is the high import duties on manufactured tobaccos of the neighboring countries, and the Swiss import duty on leaf tobacco—of 25 francs per 100 kilos imposed in 1879; the combined effect of which has been nearly to close the foreign market to Swiss manufacturers who formerly exported largely.

LYELL T. ADAMS,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Geneva, December 22, 1880.

Statistics of manufacture of tobacco and cigars in the consular district of Geneva for the year 1878.

Canton.	Town.	Factories.	Employés.
Vaud	Grandson	1	250
	Lausanne	1	24
	Moudon	1	20
	Payerne	1	114
	Vevey	4	375
	Yverdon	2	333
Valais	Sitten	1	54
Geneva	Geneva	2	200
	Chêne	2	34
Total		15	1,404

Importation and exportation of tobacco, 1876–1879.

Description.	Imports.				Exports.			
	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.
Leaf tobacco ..... kilos	57,962	64,675	85,836	68,768	237	322	501	383
Manufactured ..... do..	4,831	4,619	2,889	1,823	1,416	988	1,341	1,415
Cigars and cigarettes ..... do..	3,178	2,654	2,657	2,452	2,615	2,517	2,170	2,405
Total	65,971	71,948	91,382	73,043	4,268	3,827	4,012	4,203

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POLYNESIA.

THE SUGAR INDUSTRY OF HAWAII.

REPORT BY MR. HASTINGS, CONSULAR CLERK AT HONOLULU.

EXPLANATORY.

In compliance with the circular instructions issued to consular clerks under date of November 25, 1879, I have the honor to transmit herewith my report for the year 1880.

As the culture of sugar has become the leading industry of these islands, and is largely increasing, I have deemed it a fitting subject for a report of the kind required by the instruction.

For the greater part of the information in regard to the history of this industry, I am indebted to the Hawaiian Annual, a yearly publication, very valuable as a statistical work, published in this city. Also to data collected by J. M. Morton, esq., late United States consul, during his incumbency of this office.

Other than the Hawaiian custom-house statistics in regard to the exportation of sugar, the public records of this government contain no data in regard to this industry, or the extent or character of arable lands suitable for the cultivation of sugar-cane, which are under cultivation or lying idle.

The scarcity of reliable data, and the fact that very few of the estimates made in this connection are trustworthy, makes the preparation of a report of this kind no easy task. I would state, therefore, that in preparing this report I have used such information as I have been able to obtain from the sources mentioned and from my own personal observation while visiting several plantations on different parts of the islands.

HISTORY OF THE SUGAR INDUSTRY ON THE HAWAIIAN ISLANDS.

As the production of sugar has now become the most prominent industry of the islands, I have deemed it a subject of sufficient interest to offer to the Department a brief statement in regard to its progress from the time of its commencement up to the present day.

Sugar-cane is indigenous to the Hawaiian Islands, as well as to the most of the groups of islands in the Pacific Ocean. It was noted by Captain Cook as being "of a large size and of good quality." Vast fields of cane formerly grew wild in the country; it was used by the natives as food, but no attempts were made to utilize it for the sugar products previous to the advent of foreigners.

Many localities lay claim to the first mill and to the credit of establishing this industry. In 1852 a statement was made before the Royal Hawaiian Agricultural Society, to which general credence seems to have been given, that the first sugar manufactured on this group was in 1802, by a Chinaman, on the island of Lanai, who came here in one of the vessels trading for sandal-wood, bringing with him a stone mill and boilers, who, after grinding off one small crop and making it into sugar,

went back to China the next year with his apparatus. It is also recorded that sugar was made in Honolulu in 1819.

Sugar was made in Honolulu in 1823 by an Italian, who had the cane pounded or mashed on huge wooden trays by natives, with stone beaters, collecting the juice and boiling it in small copper kettles.

Credit is given to Messrs. Ladd & Co., an American firm, for the *bona fide* establishment of sugar-making on the Hawaiian Islands. This firm in 1835 obtained from the government a grant of land at Koloa, on the island of Lanai, for the culture of silk and sugar. The mill used must have been a rude island-made one, as mention is made of one arriving in 1837. The year following (1838) it is noted that the Koloa plantation produced 5,039 pounds of sugar and 400 gallons of molasses from one acre of cane. This plantation seems to have long labored under many disadvantages, but had, notwithstanding, the effect of stimulating other undertakings of a like character, for in 1838 there were in operation and about to be erected 20 mills worked by animal-power and 2 by water-power.

It appears that Hawaiian sugars up to 1851 did not have a favorable reputation in foreign markets, owing to their low grades and the imperfect manner of curing. During that year this matter received the attention of the Royal Hawaiian Agricultural Society, and a great improvement was soon after effected in everything pertaining to the product of this staple.

In 1851 the first centrifugal drying-machine was introduced, and soon after these machines were in general use on the plantations, the result of which was a large saving of labor and a great improvement in the grades of sugar.

In 1857 the number of plantations had dwindled down to five, four of which were run by water-power, and one by mule-power. This falling off was attributed to the low prices on the Pacific coast and a growing scarcity of labor.

About 1859 steam was brought into use as a motive power in manufacturing sugar, and in 1861 another great advance was made in this industry by the introduction of the vacuum pan. At this time the plantations had increased to 22, of which the mills of 9 were run by steam, 12 by water, and 1 by animal power.

During this year a sugar refinery was established in Honolulu. After being in operation six years it was abandoned, having met with ill success. During the three or four years following 1861 a number of plantations were commenced on a very extensive scale, the production of sugar was greatly increased, and the very finest grades produced. At this time, however, the failure of several large commercial firms in San Francisco having large interests in the sugar business on these islands caused serious financial embarrassment among the planters, while an active opposition existing among the refiners of San Francisco resulted in a great reduction of prices.

It may be said, finally, that for several years previous to the taking effect of the present reciprocity treaty with the United States, high duties in the United States (the principal market), low prices, and a growing scarcity of labor had been gradually contributing to a condition of general financial depression on these islands, which in 1875 had brought most of the plantations on the group to the verge of insolvency. In this unfortunate position the planters found relief in 1876 by the enactment of the commercial treaty of reciprocity with the United States, which went into effect in the month of September of that year. Dating from

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that time, the sugar industry of these islands has steadily advanced, and a new era of prosperity has dawned upon these islands.

The exportation of sugar, which in 1875 amounted to 25,080,182 pounds, has increased to 49,016,276 pounds for 1879. The number of plantations on the islands in 1875 was 24. This number had increased in 1879 to 57.

From the enlargement of old plantations and the increase of 33 in the number since 1875, it is fair to presume that the acreage under cultivation in 1879 was nearly treble that of 1875.

Below I give an estimate recently made of the acreage, by islands, under cultivation in 1879, the crops of 1880, together with the estimated value of the plantations.

Islands.	Number of plantations.	Acres under cultivation.	Crop for 1880.	Estimated value of plantations.
			Tons.	
Hawaii	25	11,800	22,000	$3,935,000
Maui	13	6,230	11,000	3,025,000
Lanai	8	3,580	7,600	1,790,000
Oahu	8	1,360	3,100	710,000
Molokai	3	255	500	110,000
Totals	57	23,225	45,160	9,570,000

Although this estimate has been made by a gentleman of wide experience here, well versed in particulars concerning the sugar-culture, the crop of 1880 appears to be rather overestimated.

CANE CULTIVATION.

Having thus briefly outlined the commencement and progress of this industry on this group, it perhaps may not be amiss to speak of the varieties of cane cultivated. Of those indigenous to the islands there are five, viz:

1st. White cane, somewhat resembling the Tahiti variety, being, when under a good state of cultivation, of a pale greenish-yellow color, deepening on the latter shade as it matures, rather soft rind, long jointed, with eye or bud partly sunken in the stalk, tassels freely, and ratoons well in most localities.

2d. The white cane inclined to a straw color when ripe; an inferior cane, lacking in richness of juice, and but little cultivated.

3d. The ribbon or striped cane, green and purple, rich and juicy, and preferred in highland cultivation.

4th. Purple cane, rind and joints hard, requiring great power in crushing.

5th. The Tahiti cane of the yellow variety, rich in juice, prolific, trashes easily, and with good cultivation ratoons well.

6th. Pua-Ole; a favorite cane in many localities, as it can be allowed to stand over without much detriment, if any, and does not exhaust the soil.

Of these varieties the first, fifth, and sixth are now mostly cultivated.

The fifth variety, Tahitian cane, is said to be much the best for lowland cultivation and for irrigated land. This cane has come into almost general use among the planters here. Thirty-two out of thirty-three planters who have given their opinion as to the kind of cane most suit-

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able for cultivation on their plantations have named the Tahitian variety, or Lahaina cane, as it is more generally called.

This cane was first brought here from Tahiti by an American whaleship, in 1860. Mr. George M. Chase, then United States consul at Lahaina, Maui, on visiting the vessel while she was anchored off that port, observed some stalks of sugar-cane hanging up in the cabin, and solicited one or two, which were given him by the captain. Mr. Chase and one or two others at Lahaina, who also obtained some of the seed, planted it in their gardens, and from this seed has come the variety that is now in general use in every part of the group.

SUGAR PRODUCTION.

On irrigated land from 4 to 5 tons of sugar to the acre of plant-cane are usually produced, while it has been known to yield as high as 7 tons. The average density of the juice in saccharine matter ranges from 7° to 10° Baume. First ratoons of this variety will sometimes yield from 3 to 3½ tons per acre, and second ratoons 1½ to 2 tons per acre. Usually after two crops of ratoons the land is replanted.

The soil of these islands, being made up mostly of decomposed lava, is particularly adapted to the culture of sugar-cane.

GROWTH OF THE CANE.

On some of the plantations cane has been planted on the same land for twenty and thirty years without exhausting the soil. At 1,700 feet above the sea cane ceases to blossom, but continues to grow for 3 or 4, and sometimes for 5 or 6, years. It is believed that it will flourish at an elevation of 3,000 feet.

The time required for cane to mature ranges from 12 to 36 months, according to the elevation of the land where it is planted. From 500 to 1,000 feet above the sea level it will mature from 12 to 16 months; at 1,000 to 1,500 feet, 16 to 18 months; at 2,000 to 2,500 feet, from 24 to 36 months.

From blight and pests, which usually are drawbacks to raising cane, these islands are comparatively free. In some portions of the group the planters are troubled with borers and a blight called the "ilian." On parts of the group, where cane is cultivated without irrigation, the planter sometimes suffers from drought, but usually abundant rains visit the winwdard parts of all the islands, making good crops almost certain. In no part of the world is the sugar-planter favored with finer climate and soil for cane raising, and where crops are more abundant and sure than on these islands.

LABOR.

The want of good labor, at reasonable wages, may be said to be now the only drawback.

PLEASANT OUTLOOK.

The estimated crop for 1880 is 45,000 tons, which will probably be increased to 50,000 tons in 1881. Taking into consideration the favorable soil and climate for the production of this staple, and the fact that under the treaty of commercial reciprocity, whereby the planters of these islands enjoy the advantage of having their sugars admitted to the market duty free, it is easy to be seen that this industry will, should all

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these advantages continue, cease its rapid progress only when every acre of land on the islands suitable for the cultivation of cane shall have been utilized.

F. P. HASTINGS,
Consular Clerk.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Honolulu, November 30, 1880.

COPRA MONOPOLY IN SAMOA.

REPORT BY CONSUL DAWSON, OF APIA.

[On receipt of this report at the Department a copy thereof was transmitted to the president of the San Francisco Chamber of Commerce.]

Recurring to my dispatch No. 191, of the 18th instant, relating to the subject of the commerce of this port, I have the honor to state that I have just received an agreement, accompanied by a circular letter to their agents, made between the two great German firms here who monopolize the copra trade of these islands, which has this year brought an income to the inhabitants of about $150,000. By this agreement it will appear that the firms have determined to reduce the price of produce copra to one-half, or more, of what they have herefore paid to the natives, allowing them but 1 cent cash; 1¼ cents, half cash and half trade; and 1½ cents, all trade, per one pound weight of dry, white, and good copra; while they propose to pay their foreign agents 1¾ cents per pound for the same quality of copra taken from their places, or 2 cents per pound delivered at their wharves, or alongside their ships, in Apia Harbor. During the past year the natives have received 2¼ cents cash for their copra per pound, and, in consequence of the present agreement between the monopolists, the native authorities have tabooed all the cocoanut trees on the islands, thereby preventing the making of any more copra. It remains to be seen who will triumph in this matter, the producers or the purchasers.

In the mean time, it would appear to afford a fine opportunity for San Francisco business-men to come in and carry off the crops at an advance over the monopolists, which they could easily do, there being reliable business Americans here who know the natives and their language, and who would be only too glad to act as agents for a good American house.

The cocoanut crop will not come on again till in January or February, and that being the rainy season, but comparatively little copra would then be made, while the real copra-making season will begin in April, thus giving merchants in San Francisco ample time to make their arrangements to enter into competition for the cocoanut yield.

I have used the word copra in this dispatch, and the word cobra in my former one on the subject, the word being used indifferently.

I have to request that this dispatch may be made supplementary to my No. 191.*

THOMAS M. DAWSON,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Apia, Samoa, September 27, 1880.

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* For Consul Dawson's No. 191 see January No. of Consular Reports, p. 179.

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NOTES.

Emigration from Bremen.—According to a report received at the Department of State from the consul at Bremen, the emigration from that port to the United States during the fourth quarter of 1880 reached the number of 16,411, and for the entire year 78,205.

The International Wool Exhibition in England.—The Department of State is advised by the consul-general at London that he has been informed by the secretary of the International Wool Exhibition to be held at the Crystal Palace, London, this year, that the period of application for exhibition has been extended to the 1st of April next.

The cotton crop of Mexico.—Consul Weber, of Monterey, reports as follows concerning the crops of Mexico:

The corn and sugar crops are very promising. In the Laguna country, a region situated west of Monterey, in the States of Coahuila and Durango, the cotton crop this year is very abundant; and, consequently, much less cotton will be imported from Texas than during previous years for the use of the Mexican factories. Mexican cotton in the Laguna country is now worth 17 cents per pound in Mexican silver dollars.

Fees for cedulas in Cuba.—The consul-general of the United States at Havana informs the Department of State that fees will hereafter be required by the colonial authorities of Cuba for all cedulas issued to foreigners residing in the island. Formerly these cedulas were given through foreign consular officers free of charge. Now, however, a tax is to be imposed, and the functions exercised by the consuls with respect to them transferred in a great measure to the local authorities.

Mexican customs vexations.—Consul Turner, of La Paz, Lower California, in his annual report for the year 1880, refers as follows to annoyances to which American importers are subjected at that port:

It is almost impossible to have papers covering importations made out satisfactorily to the custom-house, and scarcely an invoice escapes fines, or double or triple duties; and in this respect this port is in a worse condition than it was a year ago [when it was in the hands of the revolutionists]. The government seems determined to place every possible obstacle in the way of trade, especially with San Francisco; and people engaged in business here labor under difficulties which are unknown in other countries.

Business outlook in Japan.—Consul Stahel, of Hiogo, in a recent report received at the Department, makes the following reference to the business outlook at that place:

I am glad to be able to report a decided improvement in commercial matters since my last report. The quotations for paper currency are considerably better, and it is a very hopeful sign that, as I learn on very reliable authority, Japanese merchants are taking delivery of goods, and, in some instances, making arrangements for further purchases.

Export tax on logwood.—Consul-General Langston, of Port au Prince, calls attention to a decree recently passed by the Government of Hayti, increasing the export tax on logwood from $1.30 to $1.50 per 1,000 pounds. The present tax—counting the surtax which still remains—upon the exports of logwood is estimated by Mr. Langston at $3.60 per

ton. While the consul-general considers that this increased tax will considerably affect the logwood export, it is hoped by the Haytians that it will improve the income of the government.

American missionaries in Africa.—Consul Newton, of Saint Paul de Loando, reports to the Department of State that Messrs. W. W. Bagster, W. H. Saunders, and S. J. Miller, missionaries, sent out by the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions, at Boston, arrived at that place on the 8th of November, 1880, and that they left on the 11th for Benguela with the intention of starting for Bilie, their destination, as soon as possible. Bilie is two months' journey into the interior from Benguela.

American commercial travelers in Quebec.—The Department of State is advised by the consul at Quebec that an ordinance of that city requires transient merchants or traders, or their agents or employés, to take out a license, at $60 per annum, before following their vocations or selling by sample within that corporation. This ordinance, passed in 1866, was not enforced until the present year; and the consul's attention was called to it by the arrest of an American commercial agent, who was ignorant of the existence of any such law. Lest other agents may find themselves in like unpleasant positions, the consul reports the facts as above.

Improvement of low-coast ports.—In 1879 the Belgian Government offered a prize for the best work on the means to be employed for the improvement of ports situated on low and sandy coasts, such as those in Belgium. According to the terms governing the award of this prize, the works were required to be deposited with the minister of the interior, at Brussels, on or before the 1st of January, 1881. The chargé d'affaires of Belgium at Washington has informed the Department of State that his government has extended the time within which the works for competition for the prize may be deposited with the minister of the interior to the 31st of March, 1881.

Naturalized shipping in Hayti.—The Corps Législatif of Hayti at its recent session repealed the law of August 10, 1843, which provided for the naturalization of foreign vessels. The reasons given for the repeal were that the naturalization law injuriously affected the national treasury, fostered smuggling, &c. How the interest of ship-owners, writes Consul-General Langston, whose vessels have been naturalized are to be protected after they have paid such dues as have been required is not shown in the law, nor did it seem to have occurred to the law-makers or the government that such interests should be protected. The number of foreign vessels naturalized under the law of 1843 and sailing under the Haytian flag at the date of its repeal was considerable, and the interests sacrificed herein must be quite large.

Notice to Luxembourgers.—The minister of foreign affairs of the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg has informed the Department of State that an arrangement has been made between the Grand Duchy and the Government of the Netherlands whereby the diplomatic and consular affairs in foreign countries of the former will hereafter be administered by officers of the latter, except at Paris, Brussels, and Berlin. Subjects of the duchy in the United States will therefore take notice that in accordance with this arrangement the consulate-general of Luxembourg at New York is abolished, and that the diplomatic and consular officers of the

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Netherlands in the various cities of the United States will afford to subjects of Luxembourg the same aid and protection that is rendered to their own countrymen.

Ozocerite of Galicia.—Consul-General Weaver, of Vienna, in transmitting a report to the Department, which will be found in its proper place in this number, on the petroleum of Galicia, makes the following reference to ozocerite:

The ozocerite (earth wax) industry forms a material branch of Galician industry, and is developing considerably. The old methods of mining it are yet employed. The various qualities are found in great abundance, while some specimens exhibited at the consulate possess the most extraordinary color and purity. The question has been raised if this ozocerite might not be profitably imported into and utilized in the United States for the purpose of manufacturing candles, &c., into which at present beeswax enters very largely, since for such uses it has of late in this country quite supplanted beeswax. But American specialists inform me that probably it would not pay, seeing that the same material or a fair substitute is obtained in abundance in the residue left after refining American crude petroleum.

Emigration from Norway to the United States.—The Department of State is in receipt of information from the consul at Christiania, Norway, concerning the emigration from that port to the United States during the year 1880, which numbered 14,066 persons, of whom 7,036 were men, 4,020 were women, and 3,010 children. Of the foregoing, 2,006 were residents of Christiania, and 1,997 were Swedes. Passages were prepaid in the United States for 4,997. The total passage money amounted to $340,000. They all sailed on steamers. The total emigration from Norway to the United States during 1880 is estimated by the consul at 20,000, which equals one per cent. of the whole population. Notwithstanding the revival of prosperity in Norway, the consul anticipates a large emigration to the United States during the present year also.

American Goods in Japan.—Consul Jones, of Nagasaki, in his annual report for 1880, has the following paragraphs concerning American kerosene, clocks, and cotton manufactures in Japan:

Kerosene.—The most noticeable article of import from America to Japan is kerosene oil, the consumption of which has grown with prodigious strides, and which has found its way to the remotest places and smallest villages of Japan. As the greater portion of this country is still unopened for trade or other purposes, it is a reasonable belief that the consumption of kerosene will go on increasing, and its supply remain a matter of importance to American merchants. With the use of kerosene oil has come a demand for lamps.

The American clock is another popular article in Japan, the trade in which is of considerable importance.

In cotton goods.—So far little has been done from the United States. England and France seem to have control of this business, though there can be no good reason why American manufacturers should not compete with the world in this trade, or in almost any other, except, perhaps, the reason of a want of American ships.

Petroleum Tests in Germany.—The consul of the United States at Bremen, in a dispatch to the Department of State, dated January 5, says that the superior council, after hearing argument from a delegation of Bremen merchants, recommends as perfectly safe a burning test which corresponds to our present 110° Fahrenheit. It was considered almost as certain that this recommendation would be adopted by the minister of commerce. The consul remarks that while this test will not necessitate a change in the present mode of refining in the United States, the American oil must henceforth be fully up to 110°. Complaints are made in Bremen that while the oil in the United States has been certi-

fied as being 110° scarcely any received in that market during the last eighteen months has been up to that standard, while a large portion thereof has been proven by test as no higher than 100°, 95°, and 90°. This will have to cease henceforth, and all oil imported into Germany must be up to the standard.

Steam communication between Scandinavia and the United States.—The necessity of a direct line between this port and that of New York has been more strongly felt every year, and the building of several large ocean steamers, destined for that route, has lately been suggested by the managing director of a steam company which has vessels plying between this port and Hamburg and Havre. But the plan was not approved of by the company, and the local newspapers regret the lack of enterprising spirit in Christiania which has allowed the control of several profitable lines to pass into the hands of foreigners. In the mean time, the Swedish port of Gothenburg will shortly be put in direct communication with New York by the new Stettiner Lloyd Line, and Denmark has already a well-established line of steamers running to New York.

The Norwegian marine has suffered heavy losses. Last autumn and during the past year more vessels have been abandoned at sea by their crews than for twenty previous years.—*Report of Consul Gade, of Christiania, Norway.*

Canadian tariff and emigration.—The commercial agent at Ottawa writes as follows concerning the effect of the tariff on American trade with Canada, and emigration therefrom to the United States:

Owing to the operation of the new protective tariff, the imports of manufactures from the United States have fallen below any preceding year for a long period. The principal article, however, is anthracite coal; and this shows an increase from 10,000 tons brought in the last year to 14,000 tons in the present year. The duty of 60 cents a ton has therefore failed to affect the trade, it having been found impossible to force Nova Scotia coal as far west as this point, to compete with the American market. On the other hand the trade in American refined sugar seems to have been completely killed by the tariff. Before the present tariff came into operation nearly all the sugar used here came from the United States, but now the trade is monopolized by two refineries at Montreal, which enjoy a protection that effectually shuts out all foreign competition.

The tea trade is also very much cut off from the United States by the law which placed a discriminating duty on all teas that do not come in unbroken cargoes to Canadian ports.

Only 1,000 *bona fide* settlers have taken up their residence in this neighborhood during the present year, with effects valued at $10,513. No record has been kept of parties leaving the country; but by figures obtained by the railway officials; the number of persons who have left Ottawa and its immediate vicinity, to settle in the United States and the Canadian northwest, is set down at over 6,000. The great majority of these have taken up land in Dakota.

Canadian Lumber Trade.—The country about the Ottawa River is less fruitful in an agricultural sense than the western parts of the province of Ontario, of which this river forms the eastern boundary. It is, however, rich in mineral deposits, and still possesses, despite frequent disastrous fires and a wasteful system of lumbering, an enormous growth of red and white pine timber. The whole country hereabout was once a vast lumbering region, where the timber shanties afforded a handy market for early settlers. But, as the operations of lumbering receded, and railroads were pushed further inland, the somewhat considerable trade of supplying the shanties has been transferred to the great cities of the West. Chicago now sends pork and grain direct to the lumbermen operating on the farthest tributaries of the Ottawa.

The value of the total export of the produce of the forests of Canada in 1879–'80 was $17,404,686.80. To this sum Ottawa contributed nearly $2,000,000. The export of sawn lumber from Ottawa to the United States, up to date this year, was 140,000,000, board measure. Thirty-five rafts of square timber were floated past this city to Quebec for the European markets. It is estimated that 90 rafts will be taken out this winter, averaging about 23,000 pieces. The market for Canadian sawn lumber is at Albany and New York; square timber and deals are sent to Europe.—*Extract from the annual report of Commercial Agent Barnett, of Ottawa.*

Reopening of Mexican Ports.—Consul Sutton, of Matamoras, in a dispatch dated January 11, 1881, refers as follows to the recent reopening of the ports of Camargo and Mier:

I have the honor to report that by a late edict of the President of Mexico, the ports of Camargo and Mier have been opened to commerce. These ports were closed by an edict of President Diaz, dated August 8, 1878.

The reopening occurred on January 3, instant, in obedience to an edict of President Diaz, dated November 20, 1880.

Without at this time entering into an extended discussion of this subject, it may be well to state briefly the causes for these edicts, and their effects upon American trade.

It was well understood that these ports were closed by the Mexican Government on account of the large amount of irregular entries and smuggling into Mexico at or near those places. An additional reason given was that the receipts of those custom-houses did not pay the expense of the offices.

The actual effect of these edicts was to totally prohibit the entry of American goods at any point on the Zona Libre, except Matamoras and Nuevo Laredo. The annual amount of American imports and their probable yearly increase were thereby seriously diminished. This has been a serious blow to American interests opposite to these ports, but has tended to increase the business of Brownsville and Laredo, Texas, and that of Matamoras and Nuevo Laredo on the opposite side of the river.

The opening of these ports, and the early completion of the railroad from Corpus Christi, Texas, to a point nearly opposite one of these places, will give new facilities and an impetus to American trade.

American vs. European agriculturists.—A report from the American minister at Vienna refers as follows to a panic caused in Austria-Hungary by rumors concerning the import of American wheat into that country:

Some days since a reporter for the daily press of Vienna called at this legation to inquire as to the authenticity of a report, circulating in this empire, that the United States Government was about to establish six agencies for the introduction and sale of American grain at different points in Austria-Hungary. The points named were Trieste, Fiume, Pesth, and three other towns in the interior. He added that the report had been widely disseminated among the rural population, had created great alarm among them, and that they were anticipating ruin to their interests as the result of it.

My reply assured him that there was no information of that character at this legation, and that my government had nowhere established such agencies, or any other than the usual consular offices common to all governments.

Since then has appeared in the press a paragraph, of which the following is an example (translated):

"The news given by some journals that it has been proposed to the government of the Union, at Washington, to establish in six cities of Austria-Hungary agents who should be charged with the duty of conducting directly to Austria-Hungary the wheat trade of the United States, is said to be wholly without foundation."

The fact is worthy of note, as indicating the wide-spread fears which the agricultural population of Europe entertain of the competition of American agriculturists in their markets.

Growing Demand for American Products.—Consul Adams, in a dispatch dated January 13, 1881, gives the following interesting facts concerning the growing demand for American goods in the district of Geneva, Switzerland:

The recent immense exportation of the great staples from the United States has drawn attention to American products of all kinds. I find new advertisements con-

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tinually appearing of goods recommended specially as of American origin—American here referring always to the United States. The list below of houses in Geneva offering our goods may be of use to exporters who desire fuller information of this market, which includes Southwest Switzerland and the adjacent provinces of France:

Firms.	Articles advertised.
Jas. T. Bates & Cie	Anthracite, stoves and furnaces, novelties, general commission.
A. Funk	General commission.
F. Fawre	American products in general.
F. Foreslier	Garden tools, hardware, plated ware, whetstones, &c.
Paschoud & Dalwigk (Industrie Américaine)	Toys, photograph albums, notions, house utensils, light hardware, &c.
Coulin frères, Dégua père et fils, G. Dufour, Fillial frères, Leclere frères, Louis Wagnon, F. Pelaz, Barbier-Chabloy.	Alcohol and preserved provisions at wholesale.
Imer-Schneider	Emery grindstones, new inventions.
J. A. Belz	Furnaces, agricultural tools, and machines.
Odier & Novel	Furnaces and stoves.
J. G. A. Frey	Harmoniums.
A. Cavin	Furnaces and stoves.
Jean Carrère	Wagons and carriages.
J. J. Salm, G. Bour, Cie Singer	Sewing-machines.

Trade of Naples with the United States.—It is not easy to obtain reliable statistics at this season. But, according to the best information I can get, the amount of American grain imported into Naples during the twelve months ending September 30, 1880, is considerably in excess of 2,000,000 bushels. The amount of tobacco imported during same period was in excess of 5,000 hhds., weighing over 8,000,000 pounds. The amount of petroleum for same period was over 28,364 barrels and 78,200 cases.

There was also during same period considerable quantities of cotton-seed oil, several entire cargoes lard, &c., exact statistics of which I cannot obtain. Large quantities of canned meats, fish, oysters, lobsters, &c., are always to be found on the Naples market; but these come, as yet, almost entirely through large English houses, and are not known here at the custom-house as American. This being the case, it is impossible to get statistics as to amount. The late improvement in direct connection with New York through the Florio steamers has already made considerable change in causing direct importations from the United States, and I have little doubt that in a short time many new articles of American production will find their way into South Italy, to the mutual benefit of both countries. As a favorable indication of this, one of the last Florio steamers arriving here from New York brought 52 cases of agricultural machinery and implements to a single house dealing in such articles in Naples.—*Extract from the annual report of Consul Duncan.*

The Consular Reports in the Public Schools.—When the publication of these reports was first projected by the Department, no idea was entertained that their usefulness would extend beyond our commercial, agricultural, and manufacturing classes—in fine, all that immense constituency which is specially interested in building up our home industries and extending our foreign trade. Since their publication, however, the fact has been developed that there is not a single interest in the country which cannot find pleasure and profit in their perusal. In no unexpected quarter have these reports been received with more favor than in our public schools, and it must add materially to their value to find that not only are these publications profitable to the adult industrial generation of the present time, but that they are helping to prepare the coming generation to assume their respective positions in public life. Of the

many letters received from teachers in the public schools regarding these reports the following is selected as illustrative of this peculiar phase of the subject:

PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF PATASKALA, OHIO,
February 2, 1881.

SIR: Will you please direct that a copy of the third number of Consular Reports to the Department of State be mailed to our Public School Library?

We have found Numbers 1 and 2 very useful, and pupils as well as teachers refer to them almost daily, giving, as they do, valuable information not found in our school books.

I remain, &c.,

SETH STOUGHTON,
Principal of Schools.

Hon. WM. M. EVARTS,
Secretary of State, &c.

English brands on American goods.—Consul Canisius reports to the Department that the custom-house collector, at Bristol, informed him that American bacon marked "Wiltshire," cheese marked "Chedder," and butter marked "Argyle," and some "Welsh," are shipped from the United States to Bristol, contrary to the "custom-house consolidated act" of 1876, section 42. The articles thus marked are liable to confiscation, but the collector, so far, has not executed the law, although he intends doing so in future. He will not object to the retention of the names, if they will add "U. S. A." to the labels. The consul adds:

In an English paper I recently found the following remark about American butter: I hope the assertion is not true, but if true, the adulteration of butter ought to be abandoned, if our farmers and dairy-men wish to increase their business with England. The notice to which I referred, and which went the round of the papers, was: "It is said that some of the packers of butter are using an article called soapstone as an adulterant. It has neither color nor taste, and while it increases the weight, does not perceptibly increase the bulk."

As the import of cheese, also, is now so very large, and increases from year to year, the manufacturers should do their utmost to make good and pure cheese only, for export. Bristol, next to London and the Clyde, imports the most American and Canadian cheese, as may be seen from the following statement.

Years.	London.	Clyde.	Bristol.	Hull.	Totals.
	Boxes.	*Boxes.*	*Boxes.*	*Boxes.*	*Boxes.*
1880	236,498	428,585	257,100	3,407	925,590
1879	355,092	310,874	204,928	13,872	884,766
Increase	.....	117,711	52,172	.....	40,824
Decrease	118,594	.....	.....	10,465	.....

An American railroad in Japan.—Consul-General Van Buren, of Kanagawa, under date of January 21, states:

The first American railway ever built in the East, that is, a railway constructed under the supervision of an accomplished American engineer, after American models, and equipped with American engines, cars, and rolling stock, has just been completed on the Island of Yesso, between Otaro, on the sea-coast, and Sapporo, the capital, a distance of 23 miles.

This road, known as the "Poronai Railroad of Hokaido," was constructed under the able supervision of Joseph Crawford, esq., an engineer well known in the United States, and was completed in so short a time, and at such a low figure, as to excite the utmost admiration and approval of the government and people.

During the past few months, the foreign newspapers published in Yokohama ridiculed the prediction that the road would be finished by the end of last year, or at anything like as low a cost as $22,000 per mile. The actual fact is that it cost less than $20,000 a mile, including everything, and has now been running for several weeks, carrying from 400 to 500 passengers a trip, and doing a very large freight business.

It is the intention to extend the road 22 miles farther, to the coal mines at Poronai. This is expected to be completed within two years.

The cars contain the Miller platform and Westinghouse brake, and every modern improvement, and are represented as very comfortable, and as running very smoothly.

Mr. Crawford reports that between Otaro and Sapporo, the road passes through large forests of the finest timber, including curled maple, black walnut, and ash, the demand for which is growing very large. He is hesitating whether to return to the United States at once, where profitable engagements are awaiting him, or to yield to the solicitations of the officials here to remain and take charge of important enterprises contemplated in the immediate future.

The railways heretofore built in Japan have cost immense sums for road-ways and equipments; I am informed, from two to five times more than this Poronai road. The road from here to Tokio, 18 miles, only a very small portion of which required expensive filling, cost over $100,000 per mile

This new enterprise, so successfully completed by Mr. Crawford, is likely to reawaken the public regard for railways, and enlist the co-operation of the government in the construction of extensive lines, which will prove of great benefit to the people.

Nothing is so much wanted in Japan as good, efficient means of transportation, and it is gratifying to know that our countrymen are demonstrating the practicability of building good railways here in a short space of time, and at a very low cost.

American goods in Egypt.—The following interesting letter has been received at the Department from the consulate-general at Cario:

ALEXANDRIA, EGYPT, *January* 6, 1881.

DEAR SIR: Owing to the fact that we have not a direct line of steamships between the United States and Egypt, the importations from the United States, arriving via England, are classed in the published statistics as "English goods." Knowing the interest you take in the advancement of our commerce, we take the liberty of forwarding you a list of American goods which have been imported by or through us.

LIST OF AMERICAN GOODS IMPORTED.

Alcohol, 1,300 gallons; axes, &c., 189; axle washers, 2 cases; beef in tins, 86 cases beef, 24 tierces; beds, 120; belting, 50 feet; billiard table, 1; boot-jacks, 72; boile fluid, 20 gallons; books, 20; butter, 600 tins; bay-rum, 12 cases; carriages and wagons, 5; cards and printing, $100; chromos, 167; clocks, 200; cotton goods, 500 yards cotton thread, 50 dozens; coffee mills, 22; coal scuttles, 24; corn meal, 3,200 pounds corn mills, 6; corn starch, 410 pounds; corn shellers, 7; cotton gins, 1; envelopes 3,000; flour, 320 barrels; Florida water, 65 cases; forges, 3; gas burners, $50; glassware, $30; grass hooks, &c., 4 dozen; hats, 200; ham, 5,794 pounds; harness, 7 sets; harness blacking, &c., 32 dozens; harness accessories, $300; hominy, 300 pounds; ice-cream freezer, 1; inks, $40; ink corks, 24 dozens; jewelry, $400; lamps, 75 dozen; lard, 14,836 pounds; liver pads, 2 dozen; meat choppers, 20; oil, lubricating, 10,033 gallons; paper collars, 1,000; paints, $20; Palmer's lotion, 2 dozen; papyrographs, 9; pipe cutters, 3; plows, 11; plasters, 1½ dozen; pumps, 28; rice machinery, 1 set; revolvers, $260; saddles and bridles, 22; scales, 36; sewing machines, 131; cigars, 80,400; screws, 2,110 gross; seeds, $50; shoe polish, 180 dozen; soap, 20 cases; spirits, 1,374 gallons; starch, 200 cases; tallow, 70,956 pounds; tinned goods, 1,632 dozen; tobacco, 3,250 pounds; toys, $23; tongues, beef, 58 dozen; trunks, 155; watches, 58; whips, 10 dozen; wire fencing, 5,400 pounds; windmills, 12; window-shades, 6; writing machines, 1; yellow pine boards, 40; cheese, 3,500 pounds, and many other small articles.

Mr. E. M. Haedrich, Seventeenth and Chestnut streets, Philadelphia, Pa., is our agent in America.

Respectfully yours,

J. F. MILLIKEN & CO.

Hon. E. E. FARMAN,
Consul-General United States, Cairo, Egypt.

American barley for British brewers.—The importation of American barley, writes Consul Canisius, of Bristol, has, in the past, been very limited. Since the malt-tax has been repealed, which occurred last summer by act of Parliament, I doubt not that our farmers can compete in supplying Great Britain with barley, as well as wheat and corn. Formerly the beer-tax was raised, not from the brewed beer, but from the barley grown by the farmers. Thus a heavy tax was put upon native barley, and consequently a very large import duty upon foreign barley. But now the brewers have to pay a beer-tax, and barley can be imported free of duty, which fact ought to stimulate our farmers to raise still larger crops of this cereal—which grows better in our country than any other—for

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shipment to Bristol and other ports of England. The Bristol Times and Mirror, one of the leading daily papers here, remarked a short time ago in reference to this question:

The new law, substituting a tax on beer for the tax on malt, came into operation on the 1st of October last. It is too soon yet for those interested to inquire how the alteration is going to work, but one fact, which on the face of it appears significant, may be mentioned. A fortnight ago the imports of foreign barley into Mark lane were slightly over 1,000 quarters; last week, just as the new act came into force, the imports suddenly jumped up to 29,000 quarters. Those who have opposed the abolition of the tax on malt have always held that its removal would lead to the substitution of foreign barley for the English grown, while those who demanded the abolition have replied that only English-grown barley was of the necessary color and quality for brewing purposes. Time will tell, but in the mean time it looks as though either there had been inquiries for foreign barleys, or that the growers of foreign barley believe in a demand which they had determined to anticipate. Mr. Clare Read has at least one bit of consolation for English growers of barley. There is only one part of the United States which can produce fine barleys, equal to the English, and that is the slopes of the Rocky Mountains, so that we shall not have to lay our account for an American competition in barley equal to that in wheat. But whether continental farmers will not be able to successfully compete with English barley-growers, is a question that time alone can answer.

British cottons in China.—Consul Canisius, lately of Bristol, says that the reports from the British consuls in China to their government in Downing street, which were published a short time ago in the Blue Books to be submitted to Parliament, declare that in consequence of the low character of the English cotton goods and the belief of the English manufacturers that the prime condition for effecting the sale of their goods is cheapness and the second quality, their country is losing that trade. The consuls disapprove of this in strong terms, and tell the manufacturers of Great Britain what the consequences of it have been. Their reports to the home government convey this, to our country very flattering, testimony: The Yankees have been acting in the contrary belief, that quality is the first and price the second consideration, and the Yankees are winning the race. The English consul at Chefoo reports that the sale of English drills decreased from 14,000 pieces in 1878 to 4,000 in 1879. American drills, he says, increased to 58,000 pieces in 1878 and to 68,000 in 1879. The consul at Chin-Kiang reports that English drills decreased 24,000 pieces, while American increased to 12,000; and that there was a pretty large consumption of American sheetings, which appeared for the first time in the returns. The consul at Newchwang states that American sheetings have been preferred to English T-cloths, because they are thicker and of better quality. He also adds that 60,000 more pieces of American sheetings were imported into his district than English. American jeans and drills, also came there in larger quantities than English. Mr. Oxenham, consul of this country at Wu-Hu, reports that in his district English T-cloths and drills are "being bought largely, but their place is being taken by American drills and sheetings which are stouter, whiter, and as cheap, and, never having been sized, have yet a reputation to lose."

Trade of Germany with France and the United States.—The accompanying figures exhibit the far more extensive trade of Germany with France as compared with that of the United States.

With France, trade in 1870 and 1871 naturally declined in consequence of the then prevailing war between the two countries, but has assumed, since that date, proportions hitherto unattained. In most years, France exported more to than it imported from Germany; but in the years 1866 to 1869, 1870, and 1878 the relations were reversed.

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The export of French manufactures to Germany has always been extensive, amounting in 1864 to 144,500,000 francs. The import, on the contrary, amounted in 1864 to only 11,900,000 francs, but rose rapidly, attaining in 1869 the figure of 49,700,000 francs.

The mutual trade of these two countries developed greatly after the war, and in 1878 France imported merchandise from Germany to the extent of 152,000,000 francs, exporting thereto 165,400,000 francs worth of manufactures.

To the United States Germany's exports gradually increased up to the year 1873, since which time they have declined year by year. The imports from the United States have increased from 79,000,000 francs in 1864 to 328,600,000 in 1874, since which year they also have declined.

Trade between Germany and the United States, and Germany and France, from 1864–1878.

Years.	Imports from—		Exports to—	
	France.	United States.	France.	United States.
	Francs.	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*
1864	215,500,000	79,000,000	155,300,000	69,300,000
1865	214,200,000	117,600,000	168,400,000	50,800,000
1866	187,000,000	141,700,000	195,200,000	132,300,000
1867	212,900,000	146,400,000	257,600,000	133,000,000
1868	214,800,000	211,200,000	268,400,000	112,000,000
1869	253,400,000	206,400,000	230,100,000	126,400,000
1870	80,600,000	213,800,000	85,000,000	137,000,000
1871	199,100,000	177,400,000	160,600,000	125,500,000
1872	409,600,000	206,100,000	211,600,000	231,300,000
1873	463,200,000	317,600,000	311,100,000	307,500,000
1874	413,600,000	328,600,000	315,500,000	220,400,000
1875	426,900,000	268,900,000	349,000,000	204,500,000
1876	431,200,000	262,900,000	389,000,000	177,500,000
1877	395,100,000	311,200,000	372,800,000	165,200,000
1878	343,700,000	275,000,000	418,500,000	174,100,000

EDGAR STANTON,
United States Consul at Barmen.

The commerce of the world.—The following well-deserved compliment to the eminent Austrian statistician, Dr. Neumann-Spallart, of Vienna, is from the Augsburg Gazette of December 23, 1880, the leading commercial journal of Germany:

In his "Review of the Commerce of the World," Dr. Neumann-Spallart, governmental councilor at Vienna, expressed his confident expectation, about a year ago, that the recent development of the commerce of the world would speedily be felt in every branch of the world's industry.

The indefatigable statistician has now seen his statement confirmed by a report issued by Mr. Evarts, Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs of the United States of America, which report is based upon information received from American consuls in all parts of the world. This information clearly shows, as Neumann remarks in the last number of the Austrian Monthly Statistical Gazette, that commerce and manufactures in Europe reached their lowest point during the latter half of the year 1878, and that they revived considerably during the latter half of 1879, the cause of which revival proceeded from the United States. In that country abundant harvests gave rise to large exports, which, in return, caused a great demand for return freights, consisting especially of iron, steel, and textile fabrics, the supply of which had become exhausted in America, but which were to be obtained at very low prices in Europe. The consequence was that the excess of the exports from France to America in 1879 amounted to $10,000,000 above those of 1878, while the excess of the exports from the German Empire to the same country amounted, for the same period, to $5,000,000, and that of those from England to the enormous sum of $27,000,000.

The report of the Secretary of State, however, furnishes another confirmation, which is of special interest to science. Its figures, which were obtained from direct communications from the most authoritative sources, coincide in a surprising manner with the conclusions reached by Neumann and published with the carefully prepared collection made from official or semi-official sources which appeared in his review of the commerce of the world, already mentioned. If we call the work of the Secretary of

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State official, and that of Neumann private, we get the following differences: Total value of European imports (*i. e.* of goods imported by European countries), official, 11,331 millions of Austrian florins; private, 11,357 millions; of American imports, official, 1,991 millions; private, 1,935 millions; Asiatic imports, official, 1,200 millions; private, 1,019 millions; Australian imports, official, 516 millions; private, 495 millions; African imports, official, 356 millions; private, 280 millions. Total value of exports from Europe, official, 9,201 millions; private, 8,936 millions; from America, official, 2,708 millions; private, 2,568 millions; from Asia, official, 1,373 millions; private, 1,292 millions; from Australia, official, 451 millions; private, 468 millions; from Africa, official, 393 millions; private, 334 millions. When we consider the varied nature of the investigations demanded by the preparation of such work, and the different sources that must of necessity be used, together with the great difficulty attending the performance of such labor by a private individual, the differences appear exceedingly small, and furnish the strongest evidence in behalf of the trustworthiness of both publications.

Population of German cities.—The census of the German Empire is taken every five years. The last census was taken throughout the entire empire on the 31st of December, 1880. Consul General Kreismann, of Berlin, gives the following interesting items concerning the population of the principal cities of Germany:

The population of Berlin, including the soldiers stationed therein, numbers 1,118,630, an increase in five years of 154,390. In 1860 the population of Berlin was only 528,900. The census just taken shows the population of the other principal cities to be as follows: Hamburg, 290,055; Breslau, 272,390; Munich, 228,372; Dresden, 220,261; Leipsic, 148,760; Cologne, 144,225; Königsberg, 140,689; Frankfort-on-the-Main, 136,677; Hanover, 122,675; Stuttgart, 117,021; Bremen, 112,114; Dantzic, 107,610; Strasburg, 105,042; Nuremberg, 99,777; Magdeburg, 97,145; Barmen, 96,320; Chemnitz, 94,968; Dusseldorf, 94,800; Elberfeld, 93,332; Stettin, 91,707; Altona, 91,124; Aix-la-Chapelle, 85,158. The following cities are under 80,000 and above 70,000: Crefeld, Halle, and Brunswick. Under 70,000 and above 60,000: Dortmund, Posen, Muhlhouse-in-Alsace, Augsburg, and Mayence. Under 60,000 and above 50,000: Cassel, Erfurt, Metz, Mannheim, Frankfort-on-the-Oder, Würzburg, Lubeck, and Carlsruhe.

THE POPULATION OF SWITZERLAND, AS INDICATED BY THE CENSUS OF NOVEMBER, 1880.

Cantons.	1870.	1880.	Increase.	Decrease.
Zurich	284,786	317,058	32,272	.....
Berne	506,541	531,991	25,450	.....
Lucerne	132,153	134,811	2,658	.....
Uri	16,108	23,736	7,628	.....
Schwytz	47,705	51,333	3,628	.....
Obwalden	14,415	15,360	945	.....
Nidwalden	11,701	11,996	295	.....
Glarus	35,150	34,262	.....	888
Zug	20,993	23,001	2,008	.....
Freiburg	110,832	115,429	4,597	.....
Solothurn	74,713	80,449	5,736	.....
Basel—city	47,760	65,101	17,341	.....
Basel—land	54,127	59,278	5,151	.....
Schaffhausen	37,721	38,349	628	.....
Upper Appenzell	48,734	51,960	3,226	.....
Lower Appenzell	11,909	12,843	934	.....
St. Galle	191,015	209,801	18,786	.....
Graubündten	91,782	95,040	3,258	.....
Aargau	198,873	198,266	.....	607
Thurgau	93,308	99,556	6,248	.....
Tessin	119,569	130,783	11,214	.....
Waadt (Vaud)	229,588	235,434	5,846	.....
Wallis	96,887	100,305	3,418	.....
Neuchâtel	97,284	103,751	6,467	.....
Geneva	93,239	101,637	8,398	.....
Aggregate	2,666,848	2,841,118	175,451	1,495

FRANK H. MASON,
United States Consul.

BASLE, *January* 10, 1881.

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The international exhibition of electricity in France.—In continuation of the reports concerning this exhibition published in their proper places in the body of this number, Minister Noyes, of Paris, has transmitted to the Department the accompanying circular which he received from Mr. George Berger, commissioner-general of the forthcoming international exhibition. This document is addressed to French constructors of lighting apparatus, dynamic electric machines, and motors for the development of electrical, or electro-magnetic force, but Mr. Noyes was requested by Mr. Berger to forward it to the United States, where there are, very probably, persons who will be disposed to compete with machines or apparatus for lighting the palace and grounds of the exhibition, and with whom Mr. Berger is ready to make arrangements for admission and allotment of place.

CIRCULAR.

Article 8 of the general regulations of the International Exhibition of Electricity provides that all applications for the admission of articles which it is desired to exhibit must be in the hands of the commissioner-general not later than March 31, 1881.

Some applications must be filed before that date, especially those having reference to apparatus for the production of electric light.

It has been decided that the exhibition shall be open every evening, from eight to eleven o'clock. This has been done with a view to enabling inventors and manufacturers of illuminating apparatus to show the working of their apparatus to the general public, who will thus be able to form an opinion as to its value. The exhibition will consequently be lighted, either wholly or in part, by apparatus belonging to exhibitors.

Currents will be produced either by piles or by dynamo-electrical machines placed on exhibition by owners of illuminating apparatus or by special manufacturers.

The motive power will be furnished by steam or gas motors, most of which will belong to a special section of the exhibition.

It consequently becomes my duty to make immediate inquiry concerning the amount of aid that can be furnished by exhibitors of the three classes above designated, to the end that proper illumination may be secured for the evening.

The object of the exhibition is to popularize all applications of electricity, whether for scientific or industrial purposes, and to enable scientists to form a theoretical opinion with regard to the various kinds of apparatus while facilitating a practical acquaintance with the same.

The organizers of the exhibition must therefore refrain from granting any monopoly, even for the purpose of securing a desideratum for prime necessity, such as light produced by electricity.

Manufacturers of illuminating apparatus, of dynamo-electrical machines and suitable motors, will be pleased to remember that the opening of the exhibition in the evening is destined to inure entirely to their benefit and to the dissemination of knowledge concerning their business; they will therefore confer a favor upon the commission of organization and the commissioner-general by transmitting, as speedily as possible, such proposals as they may feel disposed to make.

I should be grateful to you, sir, if you would have the kindness to inform me, before the 15th of January next, to what extent and in what way you are willing to contribute to the lighting of the exhibition.

The large nave of the palace of the Champs-Elysées will be lighted by apparatus representing all the French and foreign systems. Independently of this, I can arrange matters so that each may furnish the light for one room on the first floor or in the basement.

G. BERGER, [L. S.]
Commissioner-General.

MINISTRY OF POSTS AND TELEGRAPHS, INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION OF ELECTRICITY, UNDER THE PATRONAGE OF THE STATE.
Paris, 1881.

Mineral Resources of Ontario.—The mineral resources of this region (Ottawa) have began to attract the attention of American capitalists, and already investments have been made by them in part of the Laurentian mountains, where prospects of wealth have been discovered. The mountains are classed by geologists as the original axes, and extend

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from the coast of Labrador along the Saint Lawrence River and the Ottawa till they form the great mountainous knot at the head of Lake Superior, whence they trend to the northwest to finally disappear in the Arctic belt to the east of Mackenzie River. Throughout their entire length they contain deposits of mineral of more or less economic value. In the neighborhood of Ottawa as lumbering operations recede, the importance of these mineral resources is gradually coming to be appreciated, and as Americans have been mainly instrumental in developing the former, so do they seem destined to develop the latter. A sketch of the minerals existing in this region, the extent to which they have been worked, and their economic value will not be uninteresting.

Magnetic iron ore exists in vast quantities throughout this region, and ore containing 70 to 90 per cent. of iron is mined within six miles of this city for shipment to Cleveland, Ohio, and other points in the United States. Attempts have been made to establish smelting works here, but owing to the absence of coal and the expense of making charcoal they were unsuccessful.

The iron ore found here is known as magnetite, of a black color; it contains 70 per cent. of iron and is very heavy. It exists in large quantities throughout the Laurentian formation of Canada, the most valuable deposits being generally in beds. The ore known as hematite is also found in considerable quantities. During the season of 1880 there were 17,820 tons of magnetite iron ore shipped from Ottawa mines to Cleveland, Ohio, by Colonel Robbins of that State, who has invested a considerable amount in these mines.

Another mining interest which promises to develop to extensive proportions is that of plumbago. Graphite (erroneously called black lead) is familiar to all as the material from which lead-pencils are made, also stove-blacking. It is one of the commonest of the Laurentian minerals, and is found disseminated in most of the rocks, also, in an impure state, in beds. A company has worked these mines for some years past, and at the Paris Universal Exposition was awarded the cross of the Legion of Honor for the superiority of its manufactures. Recently some capitalists at New York entered into an arrangement with this company for the supply of plumbago which will be worth, delivered pure at that city, $800 per ton. The mines are apparently inexhaustible.

Phosphate of lime also exists in large quantities in the Laurentian rocks, and is mined for export, in the rough state, to England and other European countries. Last year there was quite a stir in this industry, caused by the decay of the guano trade, consequent on the war between Chili and Peru. Recently, however, the trade has declined; not more than 50,000 tons having been taken out during the present year.—*From a report by Commercial Agent Barnett, of Ottawa.*

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TRADE OF THE WEST COAST OF MADAGASCAR.

Not having any consular representatives on the west coast of Madagascar, the Department of State, on the 20th of May, 1880, addressed Mr. Victor F. W. Stanwood, of Moroundava, concerning the commerce of that important, and, to the general American merchant, at least, unknown region of the world. The following very interesting report is Mr. Stanwood's reply to that communication:

REPORT BY MR. STANWOOD, ON THE COMMERCE OF THE WEST COAST OF MADAGASCAR.

[Received at the Department of State, January 22, 1881.]

INTRODUCTORY.

Mohabo is a garrisoned town; the seat of government of the province of Menabe, and the center of trade of the valley of which the Moroundava River is the water-shed. Position: latitude 20° 22′ S., longitude 45° 15′ E., being by road about 55 miles from the coast. Population (approximate), 8,000.

The town is about three miles from the north bank of the Moroundava River, in the center of a cultivated country. Exports: hides, India rubber, beeswax, gums of various kinds, coffee, rice, bark, medicinal plants, timber, &c. The province of Menabe, of which it is the capital, extends from latitude 17° S. to latitude 22° S., and extends to the center mountain range or backbone of the island; approximate longitude 46° E.

Several smaller towns, each with its military governor, are scattered at various distances over the province; each, however, at convenient points for trade. The chief in command of these towns is, in addition, the magistrate (civil), and also the collector of customs duties, both internal and foreign.

This is the Hova establishment, they claiming the jurisdiction of the entire island, which I believe they are accorded by treaty with all the leading powers of the world. The Sakalavas are entirely a separate race, and although nominally under the government of the Hovas, each section is under the direct control of its own chief, "king" as they are called here, and at several points on the coast where the Hovas have no station they levy duty according to their own ideas.

The trading posts on the coast extend from the latitude 14° S. to 23° 30′, or approximately, following the coast line, 700 miles; at intervals, varying from 20 to 50 miles, there are houses where a small stock of merchandise is kept, and the communication between these places and the depot is kept up by boats and canoes. When sufficient is collected at one of the principal points, a vessel is loaded for either Cape Colony, Mozambique, Zanzibar, Aden, Bombay, or Reunion. The principal depots are Majunga, latitude 15° 43′, longitude 46° 20′; Maintyrano, latitude 18° 21′, longitude 44° 9′; Moroundava, latitude 20° 19′, longitude 44° 19′; and St. Augustine, latitude 23° 31′, longitude 43° 38′.

At the principal stations the duty is paid on imports, and these are distributed in boats to the smaller stations. It thus happens that attempts are made to collect the duty a second time, as they have no regular custom-house staff, the people of the nearest town doing the duty and taking turns, each party of ten one week; very few of them can write at all, so to get a certificate is nearly impossible. An English vice-consul does all the work of their traders, without interfering with his business, and sends all his correspondence on board the English men-of-war which are constantly cruising in this channel for the purpose of suppressing the slave trade.

I was the first white man on this coast to establish trading posts in the interior; the first to clear a plantation, and have taken the initiative in every step for improvement since I have been here. On the 3d instant I (by special request) took the captain and officers of H. M. S. Ruby to Mohabo, they being the first naval men who had ever visited the town, and the captain expressed himself surprised at finding so prosperous a place. I mention these small matters to show that we ought to have a representative here, as well as the others, at once.

Regarding information of the country, I inclose herewith the commercial report which I prepared at the request of Commodore Shufeldt. Other information, such as minerals, general features of the country, products, population, &c., I will forward, if required. Please enumerate the subjects, and I will do my best to forward early and accurate information. I trust you will take into consideration the prospect of great improvement in the near future. Many thousand cocoanut trees have been

planted at this place; cotton (native) is being cultivated, and we are introducing cloves, cocoa, cinchona, vanilla, &c., the natives eagerly inquiring for seeds and agricultural implements. I have at this moment a shipment of agricultural implements *en route*, every one sold to arrive. In manufactures, American cotton and cutlery are the only ones salable from here north. At the south they are not so far advanced, and will buy English goods. The dollar is the currency, and when once a dollar goes into the hands of a native it is never seen again—an excellent outlet for trade dollars up to the capacity of its commerce.

In conclusion, please note the account of exports is necessarily very imperfect, as there is no regular custom-house, and much evasion of duties, especially on the more costly articles.

I remain respectfully, your obedient servant,

VICTOR F. W. STANWOOD.

MOROUNDAVA, *West Coast of Madagascar, October* 13, 1880.

Care Messrs. Arnold, Hines & Co., 158 Water street, New York.

REPORT.

The bulk of the trade is in the hands of Asiatics and Africans, who from the earliest traditions have had a trade here. They ship always to Bombay, Aden, or Mozambique, the goods being carried in the dhows of the Arabian Sea. A large proportion of the best of the ebony is reshipped at Bombay as Ceylon ebony, and figures as such in trade returns.

In a like manner India rubber, beeswax, gums, &c., are reported as African produce, most of the latter being reshipped at Mozambique. Hides follow the same route, via Zanzibar and Mozambique, while food articles, such as rice, beans, maize, beef, &c., are exported to the Comoro Islands, Mauritius, Reunion, and Zanzibar, and are never noticed in commercial returns, being divided in so many directions that they escape notice as a whole.

The figures given (see A) show the commerce in the hands of white men, four-fifths of which is in American hands, and a large proportion of the balance is covered by American manufactures.

Every race and religion of the shores of the Indian Ocean are represented here, and it is simply impossible to give an accurate account of their trading operations, but a mean of the opinions of the six white men best capable of judging gives $3,300,000.

Every one of these African and Asiatic traders buys to a greater or less extent articles of American manufacture—some of them largely, these coming from India and Zanzibar. The trade will soon pass from their hands, as the native thinks, rightly or wrongly, that he gets a better article from the white man.

The principal depots (commencing from the north) are Majunga, Maintyrano, Moroundava, and St. Augustine—Maintyrano being the principal.

Majunga has the finest harbor, and had, in 1878 and 1879, a monthly steamer; but their freights were so high, and the business generally so badly managed, that one by one the traders withdrew their support and the line was discontinued.

Maintyrano is in the best position, as a number of rivers on either side give an easy means of transport to the coast, and the country is the richest on the west side of the island. I have seen eighteen large dhows loading at once for Bombay and Aden.

Moroundava has a large trade, and being the principal port of the province of Menabe, is a natural position for a depot or base.

St. Augustine only exports beans, maize, and orchilla—beans being the principal. The crop is now coming in, and it is estimated that 1,500 tons per month will be shipped during October and November. The supply of maize is only limited by the demand. This district, from latitude 21° 30′ S. to the extreme end of the island, is in the hands of the Sakalavas.

I hope you will specify the subjects on which you wish information, as I have collected a mass of notes on many different subjects, and supposed, if it ever was called for, the particulars would be given. I have traveled considerably in the interior, and know the coast thoroughly, and will do all that can be done.

The following list of exports are those of the last quarter of 1879 and the first three quarters of 1880. Great care has been taken to ascertain facts; and in all cases where estimates are given they are based on the knowledge an active trader has of what is going on around him. With the exception of about $40,000 in cash all has been paid for in manufactured articles, which are bartered for the produce.

Under the heading of miscellaneous articles is included the whole of list B, most of which are exported in small quantities for the first time this current year. Values given are the purchasing prices free on board, *i. e.*, all expenses, storage, handling, lighterage, &c., paid.

It is very probable that the volume of business for the coming year will be more than double that of the past, as a large area of new country has been opened up, and

contact with civilized people is constantly creating wants, such as furniture, clocks, lamps, kerosene oil, hardware, *i. e.*, locks, hinges, &c., and musical instruments, among people to whom such things were unknown two years ago.

Planting is also being pushed vigorously, the natives of all classes eagerly inquiring for seeds of every new thing introduced.

A.

Exports from the west coast of Madagascar during the year ending September 30, 1880.

Hides, 85,000 (average), at $2 each	$170,000
Ebony, 2,600 tons, at $30 per ton	78,000
India rubber, 230,000 pounds, at 20 cents per pound	46,000
Live cattle, 2,500 head, at $6 per head	15,000
Beeswax, 155,000 pounds, at 20 cents per pound	21,000
Beans, 1,200 tons, at $30 per ton	36,000
Rice, 2,200 tons, at $35 per ton	77,000
Maize, 700 tons, at $20 per ton	14,000
Salt beef, 1,000 tierces, at $10 per tierce	10,000
Dried beef, 180,000 pounds, at 3 cents per pound	5,400
Timber (railway sleepers), 14,000, at $1 each	14,000
Miscellaneous exports, of which the separate values could not be given	30,000
Total	516,400

B.

Exports, miscellaneous.

Orchilla, tobacco, copra, coffee, cotton seed, ginger, arrowroot, pepper, medicinal plants, manioc, rattan, tallow, lard, skins (of wild animals), bones, horns, hoofs, tortoise shells, pearl shells, cowries, bêche de mer, salt (any quantity can be had), sandalwood, tanning barks, bark (of the baobab tree), nuts of the baobab tree, fiber (here believed to be the *Morus multicaulis*), fiber (of the cocoanut), gums of various kinds, mats, sugar-bags (of the same material as the mats), raffier (a species of grass cloth). To these may shortly be added several articles recently introduced, and which give every prospect of success.

Imports.

These consist of cotton goods, cutlery, hardware of all descriptions, crockery and glassware, clocks, furniture, carpenters' and blacksmiths' tools in sets, iron and yellow metal fastenings for boats, the lighter numbers of canvas for sails; cordage, anchors, oil, paints, tar, &c.

The bulk of the trade is done in the cheapest grades of American white and blue cotton cloth.

The stock of manufactured articles in the hands of importers October 1, 1880, I estimate to be upwards of $200,000 in excess of October 1, 1879; this in anticipation of an increased trade and an increase in facilities for shipping.

The trade of this country being a barter, it may be taken for granted that the value of imports is in a corresponding ratio to the exports, less the cash brought into the country, the amount of which can be determined with tolerable accuracy.

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COMMERCIAL RELATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES.

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FROM THE

CONSULS OF THE UNITED STATES

ON THE

COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, ETC.,

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AMERICAN TRADE EXPERIENCE IN MOROCCO.

REPORT BY VICE-CONSUL COBB, OF CASABLANCA, ON THE CONDITION OF MOROCCO AND THE DIFFICULTIES OF INTRODUCING FOREIGN TRADE THEREINTO.

I would be highly pleased if it were in my power to make a report that would induce American manufacturers and merchants to seek a market for their products and merchandise in this part of Morocco; but all kinds of business must naturally be limited to a very low figure in a country like this, where tyranny, misrule, and misery exist. The Moors are naturally very industrious and enterprising, but there is not the slightest encouragement held out to them to seek for more than their daily wants, and no foreigner is safe in doing more than a cash business, which limits trade to a very low ebb. If a foreigner sends a camel load of goods into the country by his agent to find a market for it, which was formerly the custom, it is liable to be seized by some cadi, appropriated to his own use, and the agent imprisoned; and no one knows the trouble he has to recover his property or its value, save those doing business in Morocco, and in many cases it is entirely lost to the rightful owner.

The cadies and sheiaks are now so numerous all over the empire that nothing escapes their notice; as to their own subjects, who know their business almost as well as they know it themselves. Hungry and greedy to grasp all from their hands, it is almost impossible for a non-official to accumulate more than is required for immediate wants, be content with that, and wait in hopes of seeing a change for the better in their government.

Since I have resided here I have used every endeavor to bring American manufactured goods and merchandise into this country. I have received many letters from different manufacturing companies and merchants from all parts of the United States, making all sorts of inquiries pertaining to their business and otherwise, all of which I have answered with great care and attention. Twenty-one letters of this kind I have

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sent off by one mail, giving all possible information, the result of which I presume in most cases has been unsatisfactory. Still, determined to see what could be done, I have imported from the United States, on my own account, the following articles: Deep-well and cistern pumps, sewing-machines, plows, twelve different kinds of wooden ware, carts and harnesses, petroleum and petroleum lamps, corn-shellers and winnowing-machines, and have erected on my premises a small steam flour-mill, with a circular-saw bench, a turning-lathe, and shearing-machine attached. The Moors take a great interest in all these enterprises, but it requires an operator to show such things up in order to sell them. The Moors are so ignorant that great patience must be exercised to teach them to perform. By the aid of experienced operators, I am of the opinion that farming implements might find a paying market here, although labor-saving machines would not have the value which other countries give them.

Field laborers in harvest time can only command 9 or 10 cents per day, and board themselves. A first-class farmer, fitted out complete (Moorish style), would not possess $10 worth of farming implements. A Moorish plow costs about 50 cents, a yoke for a pair of oxen 10 or 12 cents; what they call a hoe costs 12 cents, a pitchfork, in reality, nothing, as it is only a crotched stick pointed at the two points. Shovels and spades are unknown. Wheel vehicles are of a recent date, and but little used. The products of the country are all transported on the backs of animals, for which cows are used.

The apparatus in which cereals are transported on the backs of camels is made in the shape of a long bag, from palmetto leaves, and holds about ten bushels—a camel load. These concerns, although very strong, can often be purchased for 30 to 35 cents, the work of five or six days for an expert hand to make one.

Sewing-machines would sell in all the cities in the interior. There are many articles about the premises of a well-to-do Moor, of nice stitching, and I was told in Fez and Maquinez that the Jews were very fond of sewing-machines. Some of them had seen such things, but an operator must go with them to make it a success. In all the articles I have introduced here I have been compelled to be the operator. To sell a pump, I must put it in position, then take hold of the handle and show the operation.

But the great obstacle to overcome is the state of government. Could that be modified, this country would soon begin to wear a bright aspect; trade would spring up, enterprise set in, and Morocco would soon begin to show up its resources. But the policy seems to be to make the poor poorer—the few big fish devour the many little ones. The climate is excellent, the country productive, but the strong arm of tyranny presses down all enterprise and industry. I speak from eleven years' experience in this country. No people put a higher value on money than the Mohammedans and Jews of this country, and as a general rule they will part with anything they possess, or that which is most near and dear to them, suffer hardship and torture before they can be made to release their grasp on the almighty dollar, unless it is to obtain a share of foreign protection to save themselves from the horrors of the Moorish prison. And well they may dread it, for the man who has a little money, with no foreign protection or official influence to aid him, can very safely calculate that he must sooner or later pay over the last piece he possesses to obtain his freedom from prison.

The Jews of Morocco, who are numerous, are very active in trade naturally, and would be great consumers of foreign goods were the au-

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thorities less severe with them. As it is, they are compelled to remain, as it were, with their hands tied and their mouths shut.

Much can be said of this state of affairs as it now exists in this empire which ought to create a feeling of sympathy for the unfortunate ones, but I will refrain from any further details on the subject, as there would be nothing in it to benefit American trade and commerce.

JOHN COBB.

UNITED STATES VICE-CONSULATE,
Casablanca, Morocco.

CONTINENT OF AMERICA.

CANADIAN WRECKING REGULATIONS.

REPORT BY CONSUL PACE, OF PORT SARNIA.

The subject of Canadian wrecking regulations is now receiving its full share of attention in this country, not alone by individuals and through the public press, but my recently published report to the Department has furnished the theme for a somewhat angry debate in the Canadian Parliament.

Exception seems to be taken particularly to that portion of my statement which relates to the comparatively unseaworthy condition of the vessels known as the Canadian Wrecking Fleet now stationed at Windsor, but in returning to the subject I cannot find anything to retract from my former report relating to this fleet. The Prince Alfred, the largest and most powerful vessel of Canadian register, now engaged as a wrecker in these waters, was built of wood, and launched at this port in 1860. Since that time she has only received some minor repairs, but has never been rebuilt. The timbers of this vessel are not sound, as a personal inspection will show; she is not a safe vessel, and if she was an American vessel in her present condition our inspectors would not permit her to navigate these waters for any purpose. With no disposition to exaggerate, I say what can be corroborated by hundreds, that human life intrusted to her upon the lakes is placed in jeopardy.

The next vessel in order of rank attached to this fleet is the George H. Parker; she was formerly an American tug-boat, and as such has seen twenty years' service, on these inland waters without a rebuild. She is also a wooden vessel, and strictly speaking she ought to have been condemned as unseaworthy four years ago. In order to make her class for insurance, she would require to be rebuilt from her floor timbers upward, and the old boiler replaced by a new one.

The steamer Mystic comes next in order of merit, and what I have said of the others may with propriety be repeated of her, except that she is much smaller and of less power than either the Alfred or the Parker. When new, the Mystic had not sufficient size or power to be regarded as a wrecker, and now her great age and dilapidated appearance render such an appellation a burlesque.

I have described thus minutely three of the principal vessels attached to the "Canadian Wrecking Fleet," purposely calling them by name, in order that competent persons might examine for themselves, and thus ascertain the correctness or incorrectness of my report. It is idle for honorable gentlemen, on the floor of Parliament or elsewhere, to stigmatize my report as untrue so long as these mute witnesses continue to

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float, and corroborate by their general appearance the substantial truthfulness of what I have written heretofore in relation to them. If I could summon the present wrecking fleet now stationed at Windsor before a jury of sailors and ship-builders, I should ask for no outside testimony, but would be quite willing to rest my case without further delay. It is intimated from some sources that I treat this subject with too much levity. This I desire not to do. I must disclaim any intention to trifle with venerable things, but I say in all soberness, and with all the gravity which the subject seems to require, and with due and proper respect for the nautical opinion of others, that the "Canadian Wrecking Fleet," as now organized, is simply a collection of old worn-out steamboats, unseaworthy except in fair weather and smooth water, and altogether unprofitable except as Canadian wreckers.

In discussing this subject, we must not lose sight of another fact, which must be regarded as a prominent feature in this controversy, and that is the inferiority both as to size and value of Canadian lake schooners as compared with our own. The largest Canadian schooner engaged in the commerce of these lakes has a capacity for about 24,000 bushels of grain, or 700 tons of coal, whilst our largest schooners are frequently laden with upwards of 60,000 bushels of grain, or from 1,500 to 2,000 tons of coal. In point of value the same ratio holds good. The largest American schooner would bring in the market fully three times the value of the largest and most valuable Canadian schooner, and in case of disaster, whilst a steamer of moderate power and size might be able to release a Canadian schooner laden with 700 tons of coal or less, it does not follow that she would have sufficient power to release a vessel laden with a cargo of 2,000 tons. But it is not always that a schooner is obliged to wait for a real disaster before she is remanded to the special care of a Canadian wrecker. Frequently, in navigating the Saint Clair or Detroit Rivers, our deeply-laden vessels are grounded on one or the other side of the channel, sometimes by action of the current and sometimes to avoid collision. When a petty mishap of this kind occurs in Canadian waters, even though an American tug should be within hailing distance, she has no right, under the ruling of the Canadian Government, to go to the relief of the stranded vessel; but the captain of the stranded American schooner must wait until a Canadian wrecker shall come to his rescue, notwithstanding the extra expense and annoyance consequent upon the detention; and, as frequently happens when the Canadian wrecker (so called) arrives, if it is found that she does not possess the requisite power to release the vessel, then he must call to his aid the services of a lighter, which craft must also be of British extraction. The lighter remains until a portion of the stranded vessel's cargo is transferred to her, when, if she floats, the cargo is returned, and the vessel proceeds on her way. This, in some seasons of the year, creates a fine business for Canadian wreckers, but American vessel owners are not favorably impressed with the system. One instance which came under my own immediate supervision was the case of a large lake steamer, laden with 60,000 bushels of corn, on the voyage from Chicago to Buffalo. This vessel struck a sand-bar at or near the entrance from Lake Huron to the river Saint Clair, at a point less than one mile from my office. The river at this point is very narrow, and the sand-bar sets well out from the Canadian shore. The steamer struck the bar at the outermost edge, and swung round to right angles with the stream. In this position a portion of the vessel's stern was on the American side of the imaginary line dividing the two countries. At the dock of Port Huron was moored another powerful steamer

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of the same line, with hawsers and other wrecking appliances on board, and if she had been permitted to attach a hawser to that portion of the stranded steamer which had been carried within the limits of our jurisdiction by the action of the current, that portion stranded in Canada, together with the rest of the vessel, would, doubtless, have been released without trouble or delay; but, instead, a Canadian schooner was brought alongside to act as a lighter, and a large part of the cargo was transferred to her, and thus, after a long and expensive delay, the vessel was finally released. Detentions similar to this are of almost daily occurrence during the season of lake navigation. A vessel aground on the Canadian side of the river is virtually regarded as a wreck, and therefore a proper subject to be administered upon by Canadian wrecking tugs.

My object in calling attention to this subject has been, from the first, to aid in bringing about different and better regulations in relation to wrecks and wrecked property in Canadian waters, and I have the best of reasons for believing that the real shipping interests of this country, outside of the wrecking monopoly, are in sympathy with the views which I have felt called upon to express. Since the agitation of this subject in the Canadian Parliament and elsewhere, I have received assurances from vessel owners and masters, by letter and verbally, that they were in full accord with me on this subject, and they almost invariably express a wish that some action may be taken by the two governments looking to reciprocity on the subject of wrecking. Pending this, I shall continue to regard it as a part of my duty, a duty which I owe to American vessel interests, a duty which I owe to commerce and to the pursuits of peaceful industry, to point out the inconsistencies and various annoyances connected with these unfriendly wrecking regulations.

S. D. PACE, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Port Sarnia, January 31, 1881.

THE MEXICAN ZONA LIBRE AND THE TRADE THEREOF.

REPORT BY CONSUL SUTTON, OF MATAMOROS.

PRELIMINARY.

In considering the trade of Northern Mexico, one of the first requisites is a knowledge of the extent and effect of the "Zona Libre." I have previously made several quite lengthy reports on this subject, but as it was in my opinion desirable that the whole subject should be fully understood by those engaged or interested in this trade, I have concluded to make a further report, which should aim to present only the commercial view of the subject, and be suitable for publication.

ESTABLISHMENT OF THE "ZONA LIBRE."

Under date of March 17, 1858, Ramon Guerra, the then acting governor of the State of Tamaulipas, using the extraordinary faculties given him by the decree of the legislature of that State, established a free zone on this border, in substance as follows:

ARTICLE 1. Foreign goods designed for the consumption of the cities of Matamoros, Reynosa, Camargo, Mier, Guerrero, and Nuevo Laredo, and for the trade which these

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towns carry on among themselves, shall be free from all duties with the exception of the municipal duties and State taxes.

ART. 2. Mexican or foreign merchants settled on the left bank of the Rio Bravo who may desire to avail themselves of this privilege may transport their goods and fix their trading establishments without paying any duties in the towns aforesaid.

(Article 3 prescribes the methods for the importation of goods into the "Zona Libre.")

(Articles 4, 5 and 6 prescribe the methods of moving goods from one town to another inside the "Zona.")

ART. 7. Goods leaving the privileged towns to be conveyed into the interior of the republic shall, at the time of so doing, become subject to the duties laid upon them by the tariff, and they shall never be conveyed into the interior without having paid at the custom-house of the place of their departure all duties which are required to be paid in the port, and without the observance of all the requirements and provisions of the laws in force.

ART. 8. As the privilege granted by this decree ought not to cause any detriment to the national revenue, it is the duty of the inhabitants of the frontier to prevent, by all the means in their power, this privilege from being converted into a shameful smuggling traffic. It is therefore the duty of every inhabitant of the frontier voluntarily to become a sentinel constantly on the watch to prevent smuggling, otherwise the government will be under the painful necessity of withdrawing this privilege by revoking the present decree.

ART. 9. This decree shall be subject to the revision and approval of the congress of the State, at its next meeting in ordinary session, and to that of the general congress when constitutional order shall be restored, although it shall go into force as soon as published in the privileged towns.

The foregoing decree was afterwards, on the 30th day of July, 1861, approved by the General Government of the Republic of Mexico.

CAUSES.

Governor Guerra, in the preface to his decree, gives the following reasons therefor:

1. That the towns on the northern frontier are in a state of true decadence for the lack of laws to protect their commerce.

2. That, situated in the immediate vicinity of a mercantile nation which enjoys free commerce, they need equal advantages in order not to lose their population, which is constantly emigrating to the neighboring country.

Desiring to put an end to so serious an evil by means of privileges which have so long been demanded by the commerce of the frontier, and favorably considering the petition of the inhabitants of Matamoros, he has used the extraordinary faculties with which he is invested.

EFFECTS.

Although established in 1858, it seems not to have been much availed of until after the ratification by the general government in 1861. The civil war which prevailed in the United States from 1861 to 1865 caused the Mexican side of the river to be used as a means of transit between the foreign countries and the State of Texas. The facilities of the "Zona," added to its location, made this side of the frontier a great depot for supplies of all kinds going in, and for cotton, &c., coming out. As many as 80 vessels were at times receiving and discharging cargoes off Bagdad, the open roadstead at the mouth of the Rio Grande. Matamoros in 1865 is said to have had a population of over 40,000—it now has 16,000—and Bagdad had from 8,000 to 12,000, where there are now about 50 persons.

At the close of the American civil war the demand from Texas was greatly diminished, and the smuggling of goods both into the United

States and into the interior of Mexico assumed large proportions. The latter was often favored by the political troubles in Mexico. The amount of smuggling into the United States, whether of Mexican products or of foreign goods imported into the "Zona," has decreased from year to year. Now and for the last three years this has not exceeded a more or less petty business, being confined by the limitations of distance from supplying more than the limited population on the American side of the river.

The towns on the American side of the river which from 1850 to 1858 had increased in population and wealth fell into decay by the troubles of the American civil war, and largely remained in that condition until 1875. Since that time they have begun to improve, and to-day are generally in a thriving and healthy condition. Previous to 1875 the disorders on the border, the high rates of import duties in the United States on European goods, and the small demand for American goods, all combined to make it cheaper to buy of "Zona Libre" merchants and smuggle into the United States. As a result, the "Zona" had proportionately more trade than the other bank. The Mexican revolution of 1875–'76 considerably damaged the commerce of the "Zona" to the interior, and, aided by the low price of American goods, turned trade largely to the United States.

In 1874 the ports of Reynosa and Guerrero were closed to commerce because the amount of business transacted was not sufficient to pay for the expense, and also, probably, because of certain irregularities. In 1878 the ports of Camargo and Mier were also closed for the same reasons. These changes made Matamoros and Monterey (Nuevo Laredo), both in this State, the only ports of first entry in the "Zona," but goods from these two ports could be transported to any of the towns in the "Zona" between these two cities free of any duty. Mexican products were allowed to be exported from these closed ports to the United States, but, so far as I am aware, no goods from the United States were allowed to be imported.

Under an edict which took effect January 3, 1881, the ports of Camargo and Mier have again become ports of first entry in the "Zona," so that there are now four such ports—Matamoros, Camargo, Mier, and Monterey (Nuevo Laredo).

The towns of the "Zona" which were "in a true state of decadence" in 1858 grew rapidly during the American civil war, and even up to 1870 had still a considerable commerce.

From 1870 their decay, in spite of the advantages of the "Zona," has been steady, so that in 1879 they had reached the same condition of commercial stagnation mentioned by Governor Guerra in 1858. That same condition prevails still, although there are a few indications of a slight commercial improvement.

PRESENT BUSINESS OF THE "ZONA."

Exports.—The present annual exports of the "Zona," all to the United States, are about $2,000,000, about one-half of which is silver. The other exports are hides, skins, istle fiber. wool, live animals, &c.

Imports.—The imports at the two ports of the "Zona," Matamoros and Monterey (Nuevo Laredo), from the United States, for the year' ended September 30, 1879, were $2,641,320, as compared with $265,129 for the rest of the frontier, and with $4,102,082 for the rest of Mexico.

Of the $2,641,320 imported from the United States, $890,983 was of foreign goods carried through in bond, while $1,750,337 were American

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goods. For the year ending September 30, 1880, the imports at Matamoros, only, were $2,176,772, of which $1,052,255 were bonded goods and $1,124,517 were American goods.

The following summary shows the imports from the United States at the two ports of the "Zona Libre," the rest of Mexico, and for all Mexico for the five years, by separate years, ending September 30, 1880, of American goods and of foreign goods brought through the United States in bond. The table is incomplete in the fifth year as regards other ports than Matamoros, as the data therefor has not yet been received.

TABLE A.—*Mexican imports of American and bonded goods.*

Year ending—	Zona Libre.			
	Matamoros.		Nuevo Laredo.	
	American.	Bonded.	American.	Bonded.
September 30, 1876	$817,525	$689,384	$143,235	$137,754
September 30, 1877	1,340,280	629,959	389,006	113,738
September 30, 1878	1,163,368	707,722	381,368	30,299
September 30, 1879	1,275,267	862,185	475,070	28,798
September 30, 1880	1,124,517	1,052,255	....	.....
Five years	5,720,957	4,001,505	*1,388,679	*310,589

Year ending—	Total, frontier.		Rest of Mexico.		Total Mexico.
	American.	Bonded.	American.	Bonded.	American and bonded.
September 30, 1876	$1,143,804	$827,138	$3,321,734	$304,131	$5,596,807
September 30, 1877	2,235,110	744,935	3,321,488	344,647	6,646,180
September 30, 1878	1,892,768	798,021	4,122,944	322,768	7,136,501
September 30, 1879	2,015,466	890,893	3,885,410	216,672	7,008,441
September 30, 1880	.....	.....	....	.....	.....
Five years	*7,287,148	*3,260,987	*14,651,576	*1,188,218	*26,387,929

*For four years only.

It will be seen that the American imports at Matamoros, except in the first year, run about one million and a quarter, while the bonded goods run less than one million, except in the last year, when the total is over one million and slightly less than the American imports. This increase in the European imports is not so favorable to American trade as I would like, and is due, in a large degree, to care and persistence in seeking a market for English, French, and German goods. The same amount of labor in favor of American goods would largely change the relative trade.

DESTINATION OF THESE IMPORTS.

The difficulty in obtaining statistics of any sort on this subject makes it impossible for me at the present to do better than estimate the destination of the imports into the "Zona Libre." Probably 25 per cent. of these imports are consumed inside the limits of the "Zona Libre" and the remainder are sent to the interior, mostly to Monterey, and the interior cities of Saltillo, San Luis Potosi, Durango, Zacatecas, Victoria, &c. So far as regards the imports at Matamoros a much larger proportion is consumed within the limits of the "Zona Libre."

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The only reliable statistics which, so far as I know, have ever been made public on this inter-State traffic were those sent from this office and published in the first volume of Commercial Relations for 1879, pp. 452, 453. These tables give the duties paid and caused on goods leaving for the interior and for other towns in the "Zona" and the number of packages of free and dutiable sent to each of these points.

From a careful study of the whole subject I have made the following summary, showing the values of the goods imported here for the years given and the estimated values of the goods sent to the interior and to points inside the "Zona." These latter values have been obtained by calculating the duties paid or computed to be paid as 60 per cent. of the value of the goods before leaving this city. This method I am satisfied is as correct as the Mexican method of adding 50 or 60 per cent. to the invoice value to make the "plaza" value. The table also shows the exact revenues of this custom-house for the three years.

It will be seen that the total imports into this city for the three years amount to $6,038,781, while the exports to the interior are $2,593,890, and those to other points inside the "Zona" to $962,290. The total sent out from this city is $3,556,180, leaving for consumption in this city and for other purposes, $2,482,601.

It will be noted that the amount brought in and not exported, either to the interior or to other points inside the "Zona," is much larger than my estimate of the local consumption. As the amount held in stock in this city has not varied greatly, it is probable that the difference between the real local consumption and the amount not accounted for represents the irregular traffic to the interior.

Summary for the three years ending September 30, 1879.

1. Imports	$6,038,781
2. Exports to interior	2,593,890
3. Duties paid thereon	1,556,335
4. Exports to other points in the "Zona Libre"	962,290
5. Duties computed thereon but not paid	577,375
6. Inspection and local charges computed at $40,000 per annum	120,000
7. Total internal exports	3,556,180
8. Excess of imports over exports	2,482,601
9. Total revenues of this custom-house (3), is official (6), is computed	1,676,335

NOTE.—As I find it almost impossible to get statistics which are exactly correct, it will be well to consider that the total given in (1) is very nearly but not absolutely correct.

PRESENT LIMITS.

The present limits of the "Zona" are from the mouth of the Rio Grande, up river, to the State line, a few miles above Monterey (Nuevo) Laredo and back from the river a narrow but rather indefinite distance, not exceeding in any place about 25 miles.

The ports of first entry are now Matamoros, Camargo, Mier, and Monterey (Nuevo Laredo). The towns of Reynosa, Guerrero, and other villas and ranchos lying within this limit are entitled to receive from the ports of first entry.

POPULATION.

The population of this strip is estimated as being about 50,000, divided as follows:

Matamoros	16,000
Reynosa, old and new	3,500
Camargo, old and new	4,500
Mier	6,000
Guerrero	7,000
Monterey (Nuevo Laredo)	3,500
Other villas and ranchos	9,500

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Local regulations and charges.

IMPORTS.

All goods imported into any one of the ports of first entry must be regularly entered at the custom-house under the exacting conditions of the tariff. All goods which are not by the Mexican tariff free of duty must pay one-half cent per pound on the gross weight and one and thirty-seven hundredths per cent. of the regular Mexican tariff. Any error in the declaration as to weight, value, description, &c., is punishable by the same heavy fine as on goods entered at other ports where full duties are exacted. When these goods have passed the custom-house they may be held in store by the merchant an unlimited time or may be consumed free of any further charge.

EXPORTS.

INSIDE THE "ZONA."

When any goods thus imported are to be sent to any point inside the "Zona Libre" they must be again regularly manifested and a bond given to produce and file within a certain prescribed time the "guia" properly indorsed by the various customs officers along the route and at the destination. No charge is made except for the paper, stamps, &c. The goods once arrived at the point of destination may be there consumed free of further tariff duties.

TO THE INTERIOR.

Goods destined to the interior are regularly entered and are then subject to the full Mexican tariff, less the amount already paid. These are sent with similar restrictions as to return of "guia," &c., as in the "Zona."

CUSTOM-HOUSE PAPER.

In the paying of duties on goods to the interior one thing has to be considered, although it does not strictly concern the "Zona Libre." This is the possibility of buying what is called custom-house paper and using the same in paying a portion of the duties. This paper is of a variable character as to quantity, availability, and price. At present a small supply is said to be obtainable at about 80 cents on the dollar. I understand that this year it may be used to pay 84 cents on the dollar of the amount of duties which have not been paid on entering and which are due when goods are manifested for the interior.

COMMENTS.

If the "Zona Libre" did not exist, the local frontier trade would be almost entirely transferred to the American bank, and only those goods intended for the interior would be entered at the custom-house. This was plainly shown by the condition of affairs at Piedras Negras, which is above the limits of, the "Zona Libre."

Although calico was freely used by the residents of that city, I found but a single piece in stock, and that had not come over in the regular way. The merchant who had it, said that he would sell five or six yards per annum in cases of emergency; that is, in cases where there was not

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sufficient time to send to Eagle Pass, Tex., just across the river, there to buy and smuggle across.

Nearly every article needed for local consumption which was not free of any import duty was thus bought in Eagle Pass and smuggled across to Piedras Negras.

The legitimate business is thus confined to free imports, to imports intended for the interior via that custom-house, and to the exports and consumption of Mexican products.

The same conditions obtain all along this frontier and would doubtless have the same results. As matters now stand the "Zona" merchant pays the local charges previously noted and the very high occupation taxes or licenses and can sell at equal advantage American or foreign goods. The American merchant on the other bank can only sell to good advantage American goods—foreign goods which are free of duty and those which pay but a small import duty. Those foreign goods which pay high import duty in the United States can be purchased cheaper in the "Zona."

Of late years the increased demand for American goods, the lower taxes, greater security, lower import duties on many foreign goods, have aided to make trade in many articles more profitable on the American than on the Mexican bank. This condition prevails to-day along the "Zona" and is likely to continue, although it may be modified by the opening of railways.

THE AMERICAN BONDED SYSTEM.

The privileges of the "Zona" are materially aided by the facility and cheapness of bringing European goods to this city via the United States. The port of Brownsville (Brazos de Santiago) is nearly as much a Mexican as an American port of entry. The European goods which passed through that district last year all came to this city, and lacked less than $100,000 of equaling the imports of American goods. (See Table A.)

In former years most of those European goods came to Brazos in American vessels, having been first entered at New York or New Orleans. Of late years, owing to the high freight-rates between those ports and Brazos, it has been found more profitable to bring more of them direct from Europe in European vessels.

For the year ended September 30, 1876, the direct imports at Brazos were 47 per cent., while in the year ending September 30, 1879, they had increased to 68 per cent. of the total imports of such goods. As the customs charges for this class of goods are very small, they are laid down in Matamoros almost as cheaply as American goods.

As many correspondents have inquired of me if the "Zona Libre" had been abolished, I would state in this connection that at the present I know of no effort being made to secure its abolition. On the contrary, as previously stated, two ports of first entry have been reopened to commerce with the United States with all the privileges of the "Zona."

WARNER P. SUTTON, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Matamoros, February 28, 1881.

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TRADE OF COSTA RICA.

REPORT BY CONSUL MORRELL, OF SAN JOSÉ.

Although the trade of this country has apparently fallen off during the past eight years, as regards imports, it is in a more healthy condition than during the first half of that period, and is daily becoming more so. Owing to the too liberal credits obtained in Europe, the tendency was to import excessively, so that three or four years ago there were goods enough in the country to supply most of its wants for two or three years. During the past two years it may safely be stated that no one has imported more than sufficient to fill up assortments, and old stock has been worked off, though in many cases at a loss, and a steady demand exists for new goods as fast as they arrive.

During the last ten years the trade with the United States, especially as regards imports, has increased steadily, while a proportionate decline in the trade with some of the countries of Europe is evident.

Imports at Puntas Arenas for the four months ending April 30, 1880.

	Packages.	Pounds, gross weight.
From San Francisco	25,210	3,880,290
From New York	4,468	498,887
Total from the United States	29,678	4,379,177
From France	13,170	1,299,992
From Germany	24,616	2,703,164
From England	5,123	662,912
From all other places	2,196	271,632
Total, four months	74,783	9,316,877
Preceding eight months (packages not stated)	.....	7,868,783
Total imports for twelve months	.....	17,185,660

The approximate value of the above may be stated at $2,500,000 at least, and probably more.

Of the 9,316,877 pounds imported during the last four months of the above year (which is the season when the greater part of the importation occurs, as the roads are in good order) 4,379,177 pounds, or 47 per cent. were from the United States; but the value was not in the same proportion, being considerably less. Yet it serves to show plainly the increase in our trade. as ten years ago the proportion of bulk from the United States was not 10 per cent., and probably not over 7 per cent. of the whole.

By far the greater part of the imports from New York consist of manufactured goods, and come via Panama, at a very high rate of transportation, except a few hundred tons destined for all parts of Central America, which come by sail via Cape Horn, at half of the rates charged via Panama, comprising bulky goods of comparatively small value.

Imports at Port Limon for the four months ending April 30, 1880.

From Colombia..... 1,635 packages, 144,969 pounds, principally fresh provisions.
From Jamaica ..... 165 packages, 22,055 pounds, principally fresh provisions.

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From Nicaragua.....	58 packages,	4,341 pounds, principally fresh provisions.
From Bocas del Toro..	284 packages,	8,557 pounds, (200 packages were plants.)
From England.....	386 packages,	23,409 pounds, general merchandise.
From New York.....	590 packages,	59,982 pounds, general merchandise.
From Florida.....	4,470 railroad ties.	

Of the 83,391 pounds imported from England and the United States, 59,982 pounds, or 72 per cent. were from the latter.

EXPORTS.

The yearly exports vary considerably in value, owing to fluctuations in prices and the inequality of crops. During the past ten years there have been abundant harvests and short crops, almost successively. Coffee is the principal article of export, and 200,000 sacks of 125 pounds each is considered a good crop. Twice only it has reached 300,000 sacks, and it has often fallen to 100,000 and 150,000. Formerly the price in the interior averaged less than 8 cents per pound; five or six years ago, owing to high prices in Europe and the United States, it reached 20 cents; during the past four or five years it has ranged from 10 to 15 cents; this year's crop is selling at about an average of 11 cents in the interior, or 14 cents per pound on board at Puntas Arenas, equivalent to about 12 cents in United States gold.

The coffee exported during the four months ending April 30, 1880, amounted to 157,862 sacks, 17,881,796 pounds; preceding eight months, 46,675 sacks, 5,834,270 pounds. Total value on board, at 15 cents per pound, $3,521,895.85, Costa Rican money.

Of the above about 40,000 sacks, or 20 per cent., went to the United States; the remainder mostly to Europe. All other exports during the same time amounted to less than $10,000 in value.

COSTA RICA RAILROAD.

From Port Limon, on the Atlantic, to Puntas Arenas, on the Pacific, a railroad is being constructed by the government as rapidly as their resources allow, and already over 90 miles are in operation, viz, 64 miles from Limon towards the interior, 13 miles from San José to Alajuela, and 13 miles from Puntas Arenas to Esparta; leaving 31 miles to be completed between San José and the point to which rails are laid, and 39 miles between Esparta and Alajuela; total length when completed, 160 miles.

Upon the completion of the 31 miles between San José and the present terminus, on the Atlantic side, the line will be open from Alajuela to Port Limon, affording transportation to and from that port for the greater part of the exports and imports of the country, which now depend upon the expensive route across the Isthmus of Panama or the dilatory one around Cape Horn. Although the trade with San Francisco and other points on the Pacific is considerable, the present facilities for transportation to and from Puntas Arenas are sufficiently good, so that the completion of the railroad to that port is by no means urgent, and in the opinion of many might be dispensed with altogether without materially affecting the prosperity of the country.

The government is making strenuous efforts to complete the road from the interior to Limon with as little delay as possible, but it is feared that the remaining 31 miles, over the intervening high mountain range, will prove more formidable than all the rest, in a pecuniary sense. However, having accomplished so much as they have, it is reasonable to presume that means will not be wanting to accomplish the whole.

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The moment the road is opened to Limon, not only will an immense advantage be gained by the existing commerce of the country, but a corresponding impulse will be given to the development of new resources, and the country will reach at one stride a higher place in civilization and material prosperity than it would otherwise reach in half a century.

A. MORRELL,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
San José, Costa Rica, February 15, 1881.

AMERICAN TRADE IN THE BAHAMAS.

REPORT BY CONSUL M'LAIN, OF NASSAU, N. P.

Although, as previously reported in my returns to the Department, there already exists a reasonably satisfactory condition of trade between the United States and the Bahamas, there are no insurmountable obstacles in the way of our dealers adding materially to the volume of trade which they at present enjoy with this colony.

I desire, at this time, to submit a few facts touching the trade in ships' materials and naval stores, hardware, and dry goods.

There is quite an importation into this colony of articles which enter into the construction, equipment, and repairing of vessels. Whilst no vessels of large size are built in the Bahamas—the largest ones seldom exceeding or even reaching a burden of 100 tons—yet hundreds of small schooners, sloops, and smacks are constantly plying in and about Bahamian waters, being used in the gathering of sponges and shells, in fishing and turtling, in wrecking, and in carrying on a large domestic commerce between the numerous islands which compose this group. It is estimated that not less than 400 vessels are engaged in sponging alone, an industry which furnishes employment to several thousand persons in the colony.

These vessels are built and owned in the Bahamas, and the materials used in their construction, equipment, and repair, as well as the large quantity consumed in the repair of foreign vessels, which often put into Nassau in distress, are all imported. I am happy to report that at this time probably three-fourths of these importations come from the United States. Formerly Russia duck, imported from England, was exclusively used for sails; but American cotton duck has entirely supplanted it, being found to wear longer and to hold the wind better. American cotton sail-twine is also used exclusively. Fishermen prefer the American white twine for their seines, though English twine is used for turtling. Our cotton fish-lines have also supplanted the English, because they are less slippery when wet, and so are more easily handled.

Manila rope and cordage of American make is preferred to the English, because it is better made, is more smoothly and evenly laid, and this, too, although it costs two cents per pound more. The United States furnishes all the coal tar, raw or pine tar, rosin, pitch, and turpentine, because it can do so more cheaply; and for this same reason blocks, mast-hoops, and such articles come from the States. Iron cut nails are a so bought in the United States. The American galvanized boat nail and spike is preferred to the English, for its better shape and finish, and lower cost. In fact they have entirely superseded the old-fashioned En-

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glish boat-nails known as the "Bermuda" pattern. Some goods for ship-building, however, are still bought exclusively in England. Small anchors, weighing from 60 to 200 pounds, are used by Bahama vessels, and these all come from England, as well as the bulk of paints, oils, bar and sheet iron, sheet lead, sheet zinc, copper sheathing, wrought-iron nails, and some other items, all on account of being cheaper in England. In tarred hemp preference is given to the English, the stock being longer. The timber used is either native wood or is imported from the Southern States. With these few exceptions the United States have monopolized this department of trade, and our dealers can easily retain it by continuing to furnish good materials at fair prices. That small portion of the trade which now goes to the mother country can be gained by our dealers as soon as they can sell the goods in question at prices to compete with England.

With respect to the trade in general hardware there is room for much improvement, although in this direction the United States have not been idle; indeed, our dealers have secured already a respectable share of the business. We supply most of the cast-iron door-locks, because they are lighter and better adapted for inside doors. The English locks are of wrought iron, and being stronger are preferred for outside purposes. American hatchets, shingling and claw, "Yankee" and "Kentucky" pattern axes, and ship-carpenters' adzes are preferred to the English, being better and quite as cheap. Those made by Messrs. Collins & Co., of Hartford, Conn., are decided favorites. Furniture is kept by hardware stores, and the importations are largely from America. Our styles are very superior, especially in the cheaper varieties, which are the kinds mostly sold here. The style, pattern, finish, and general "get up" of American furniture, when one considers the low price at which it is sold, are quite marvelous, and make it popular. Kerosene-lamp goods naturally come hand in hand with our petroleum, and cast-iron kitchen stoves, grindstones, porcelain and mineral knobs, cut nails, tacks, casters, wooden ware, and all that host of small and cheap articles peculiarly of American manufacture, control the market here.

On the other hand there are many things which are still bought in England, and which our enterprising dealers should look after, such as tin plates, door and window bolts and hinges made of *wrought iron*, wrought-iron tacks of various kinds, brass goods generally, all sorts of carpenters' tools (except hatchets, axes, and adzes), table and pocket cutlery, scissors, shears, saddlery hardware, powder and shot, guns, machets, and enameled kitchen ware. Here is quite a field for American enterprise.

I would call especial attention to the trade in cast-iron hollow ware, such as pots, camp ovens, and charcoal stoves. A great many of these goods are sold here, but England has the trade all to herself, the main reason for which is that American goods of this class are made too heavy for this market. There is little use in sending them here, for they will not sell to any extent. The English make are lighter and cheaper. the first cost in England being 2¾ cents per pound, whilst the American cost 3½ cents per pound, a difference in price which the lower freights from the States will not overcome. Freight from England, nearly 4,000 miles distant, is, per English steamers, $11 per ton; freight from New York, only 1,000 miles distant, per American steamers, is $8.50 per ton. It might not be impertinent, in this connection, to remark that if an English steamship can carry freight 4,000 miles for $11 a ton, an American ship ought to be able to carry it one-fourth the distance for less than $8.50, and not lose money either.

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It will be seen from the following table of comparison instituted between the celebrated "Cannon Foundry," England, and the "Pocasset Iron Works," of Massachusetts, that the American goods are 50 per cent. heavier than the English:

Average weights of English and American foundries.

Articles.	"Cannon Foundry," England.	"Pocasset Iron Works," United States.
	Pounds.	*Pounds.*
Half-gallon pots	3	4
Three-quarter gallon pots	4	6
One-gallon pots	5	8
One and one-half gallon pots	7	10
Two-gallon pots	8	13
Two and one-half gallon pots	10	15
Three-gallon pots	11	17
Four-gallon pots	15	23
Five-gallon pots	16	25
Six-gallon pots	22	32

This also applies to camp ovens and charcoal stoves. As will be seen, as now made, a one-gallon pot costs in England 13¾ cents, whilst one of the same capacity costs in the States 28 cents, or over 100 per cent. more. They will sell at retail in the Bahamas for the *same price*, for, to the native purchaser, a gallon pot is a gallon pot and no more, no matter how heavy or how light it may be. The *size* is all he looks at, and he goes upon the same principle as the Irishman who wanted the biggest pair of boots he could get for his money, regardless of quality or fit. So our dealers will find that if they wish to secure the hollow-ware trade of the Bahamas they must reduce the *weight* of their manufactures, and thereby reduce the price. Then, and not till then, can they hope to sell pots, ovens, and stoves in this colony.

In the matter of dry-goods there is also room for improvement in American trade. As dry-goods are classified at the custom-house with many other articles which pay an ad valorem duty of 20 per cent., it is difficult to decide just what proportion of the trade goes to the United States. We undoubtedly have a fair share of the trade, but we should have much more. A moderate quantity of cotton prints, denims, sheetings, tickings, cottonades, drills, shirts, corsets, and numerous small wares in the notion line, are bought in the United States; but I judge that more than half the cotton, woolen, linen, and silk goods, as well as umbrellas, gloves, flowers, feathers, lace and fancy goods, haberdashery, felt and straw hats, &c., came from England during the past year. In fact, I do not think the amount of these goods bought in the States, during 1880, was equal to the purchases of either 1877, 1878, or 1879. I am informed by merchants here that during the former years various staple goods could be bought in the States at prices as low as English fabrics of the same description were sold for, and that at that time the trade began to be brisk with the States, and our goods were favorably received. But during the last year prices have materially advanced in the United States, so that English manufacturers are again selling goods to the Bahamas.

Some of the merchants here complain of what they style the "instability of the American market" for such goods; that is, the fluctuation of prices are so frequent, and often so marked, that they are never sure what certain lines of goods are going to cost them. In the English markets the prices remain very steady the year through, British man-

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ufacturers not being so ready to advance prices, nor upon such slight pretext, as are the American dealers. Hence, the merchants say they cannot safely depend on the American markets; for their own customers expect to buy the same article at nearly the same price every month in the year, and the dealers can meet these views only by purchasing where the markets are the steadiest.

In view of these facts, it seems apparent that with proper care and energy the dealers and manufacturers in the United States may largely increase their trade with the Bahamas. They must acquaint themselves with the wants and tastes of the people of the colony; then they must furnish goods that are equal in quality to those sent from England; and finally they must be able to compete fairly in prices with the British manufacturers. In estimating the prices which they can give dealers here, they will find that they have several things in their favor over the British dealer. Freight is in favor of the United States, though not so much as it should be. Exchange is decidedly in our favor. Distance and time are largely with us. If with these things to discriminate in our favor we cannot secure the entire trade of the Bahamas, it would seem as if we did not deserve it.

I beg leave to add that the annual returns of the trade and commerce of the Bahamas, now past due, have not been forwarded, simply on account of my inability to obtain them up to this date from the customs authorities.

THOMAS J. McLAIN, JR.,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Nassau, N. P., Bahamas, February 7, 1881.

THE COTTON GOODS TRADE OF HAYTI.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL LANGSTON, OF PORT-AU-PRINCE.

In studying the commercial relations of the United States with the West India Islands one is especially struck with the fact that while the former country supplies such islands with provisions, it has no such place in connection therewith in the sale of cotton goods as would seem to be natural and inevitable.

Such trade must be regarded as worthy of cultivation. If one consider the amount invested in the provisions sold as indicated and the returns made therefrom, and calls to mind the fact that in these islands cotton fabrics in the very nature of the case must be in constant and large demand, it cannot but be concluded that such trade, properly cared for and reasonably promoted, must prove largely remunerative.

It is claimed that the American manufacturer pays too little attention to the tastes and requirements of such trade as regards these islands. This fact deserves consideration, and should be given due weight in the future operations of the American manufacturer.

Where American cotton fabrics have been introduced, although sometimes being sold at advanced prices, the quality and durability thereof have so commended them that they have and do maintain themselves in general competition. This is particularly true of American denims.

The population, as to its character and numbers, and the facility of communication between such islands and the United States, in addition to the probable demand mentioned, would seem to add additional force

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to the opinion that such trade might be maintained with reasonable mutual profits.

As regards the consular jurisdiction of Hayti especially, one of the most intelligent and enterprising merchants of the country has said:

> Manufacturers of the United States pay too little attention to the styles and measurements of goods and the tastes and needs of the country for which they are required for export. Every country has its fashions and tastes, and to these the Manchester manufacturer, with remarkable ability, adapts himself.

Continuing, he says:

> I have visited some of the neighboring West India Islands and have found everywhere varying tastes, and I have found that the Manchester market furnishes to every island what it requires. If we consider that the population is by no means scanty in these islands, and that on account of the climate almost none or very few woolen goods are used, one can form something like a correct idea of the very important trade existing already between Manchester and the West Indies in cotton goods.

In 1878 fair importations could be made to this country from the United States of dry goods, as bleached and colored cottons. Towards the close of 1879, however, American manufacturers, influenced by home trade, increased their prices to such a degree that competition with fabrics of Manchester make was impracticable. Gradually, however, prices were, as regards the goods referred to, lessened, and during the months of July and August of last year such goods could be placed upon the Haytian market advantageously, but even then many difficulties were encountered by merchants making such orders. These difficulties were of two sorts: First, those connected with the style and measurement of the goods as imported; and, secondly, those connected with the refusal of our manufacturers to supply articles according to patterns and measurements required by the trade. For instance, an order for 25,000 yards prints was considered too small a quantity to justify choice of patterns and to regulate the quantity of goods in 25-yard pieces as required by trade in this country. Hence it was necessary, were the goods purchased, to accept them as assorted and prepared for the American trade. On the other hand, it is claimed that English manufacturers would gladly have accepted such an order and would have provided new patterns if required, knowing that a similar quantity could be reordered within reasonable periods, perhaps every second month during the busy season.

It is admitted that as a general rule American cotton goods, bleached or colored, are of good quality; but sometimes it is claimed that the latter vary in quality of material and shade of color. This fact is one of no little importance in connection with the maintenance of the sale of such goods.

It is also said that the fluctuations of prices render the American trade in dry-goods difficult in this locality. The merchants claim that prices, with a view to successful dealing in such goods, especially in this country, should be uniform and as fixed as possible; and besides, they claim that in addition to satisfying the common taste in patterns, the required length of the pieces (12½ and 25 yards) of bleached and printed cotton goods, according to the customs of trade, are indispensable to successful competition of American manufacturers as against English in the trade of this country.

Were it possible for American manufacturers to reduce somewhat and render a little more steady the prices of their goods; were they to give attention to the tastes, the patterns, and measurement of goods required in this country, a large and increasing trade, perhaps as important in

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its results as that now had in provisions, would, within a very few years, be established in this country, and doubtless in the West Indies generally.

JOHN MERCER LANGSTON,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Port-au-Prince, Hayti, January 29, 1881.

INCREASE OF BRITISH STEAMERS AND DECREASE OF AMERICAN SHIPPING IN SOUTH AMERICA.

REPORT BY CONSUL PLUMACHER, ON THE DECREASE OF AMERICAN SHIPPING AT MARACAIBO ON ACCOUNT OF THE ESTABLISHMENT OF A LINE OF BRITISH STEAMERS BETWEEN THAT PORT AND NEW YORK.

Formerly American sailing vessels were continually plying between the United States and this port, and until within the last year a fair proportion of the trade was conducted under the American flag.

The majority of these vessels were schooners and brigantines of from 120 to 250 tons register, a mercantile house in New York having built and fitted out at great expense several fine brigantines especially for this trade, which were designed not only to carry large cargoes, but in addition were supplied with superior passenger accommodations.

Notwithstanding the large capacity of these vessels, their load draft did not exceed 11 feet, thus enabling them to pass, at all times, the bar at the entrance of Lake Maracaibo.

Under these circumstances this line of vessels did a flourishing business, and our flag was always represented in these waters.

Within the past year, however, two British steamers, belonging to the "Atlas" Steamship Company of Liverpool, have been placed on the New York and Maracaibo line, and since then the arrivals of sailing vessels have become less frequent, the regular American packets, above referred to, having been obliged to withdraw entirely on account of their inability to compete with the British steamers.

It is a sad fact, but one which I must acknowledge, that to-day the American flag is entirely driven from these waters, and the stars and stripes which formerly waved so proudly from the mast-heads of so many of our fine ships in this port are now only displayed from the flag-staff of the United States consulate.

The table on navigation shows the entrance of 17 American steamers, but it must be understood that these 17 arrivals refer to one steamer only, the Lucy P. Miller, of New Orleans, which was temporarily engaged to run between this port and the neighboring Dutch island of Curaçoa, on account of the loss of the British steamer Pico, on the coast of Paraguará.

The steamer now engaged in the trade with Curaçoa, was built immediately upon the loss of the Pico, and though constructed in Philadelphia, carries the British flag, and is now making regular trips, connecting at Curaçoa with the large foreign steamers for Europe and the United States.

The annual report to the Department of State from this consular district shows that during the calendar year 1880, the exports from the port of Maracaibo to New York amounted to the large sum of $4,188,617.12.

Of this amount, $3,851,064.45 were shipped in British bottoms, while only $337,552.67 were carried under the American flag.

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It appears a commercial anomaly that goods destined for us from a country lying, as we may say, at our very doors, should be brought to our shores by the ships of a nation thousands of miles distant both from ourselves and from the place of export.

In this connection I have only mentioned the *exports* from this district, but the *imports* received from the United States, not only for this port and vicinity, but also for Colombia, via Maracaibo, would also show handsome figures.

If in former years we had not been able to carry our own goods to our own ports under our own flag, I would not have mentioned the present condition of our maritime interests here; but as we easily accomplished it in the past, when our country was neither so strong nor so progressive as at present, the question naturally arises why cannot we restore our former maritime prestige, or, at least, obtain a fair share of the trade, the more so that the commercial relations of the United States and Venezuela are daily becoming more important and extended?

While speaking of my experience at this port, I can also safely assert that my colleagues at other South American maritime consulates can bear witness to the same sad fact that our flag has almost entirely disappeared, superseded by those of other nationalities, and that, in view of our growing trade with these countries, it will be well worth while to take measures to prevent the ruin of our merchant navy, and to facilitate a return to the status of former times, when our flag was ever present in all the waters of the world.

E. H. PLUMACHER, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Maracaibo, January 15, 1881.

Specification of cargo shipped in the year 1880 from Maracaibo to New York by steamers of the Atlas Steamship Company, limited, of Liverpool, England.

Steamers.	Date.	Coffee.		Bark.		Hides.		Skins.		Balsam copaiba.	
		Bags.	Weight.	Packages.	Weight.	Pieces.	Weight.	Packs.	Weight.	Boxes.	Weight.
	1880.		*Lbs.*		*Lbs.*		*Lbs.*		*Lbs.*		*Lbs.*
Arran	Jan. 24	3,281	438,020	22	2,300	8	203	56	.....	7	662
Arran	Mar. 3	3,311	429,718	40	4,497	502	.....	36	.....	17	1,681
Houssa...	Apr. 3	4,535	596,283	55	5,805	703	21,243	62	10,588	20	1,977
Arran	Apr. 22	5,706	746,432	182	14,375	386	10,359	33	5,640	20	1,974
Houssa...	May 22	6,028	773,410	294	32,484	317	7,970	66	10,820	22	2,310
Arran	June 10	2,171	274,187	.....	....	395	10,953	9	1,377	.....	.....
Houssa...	July 3	6,163	800,453	195	21,960	516	11,776	10	2,455	25	1,374
Arran	July 24	5,558	708,476	44	4,850	1,526	41,889	19	3,100	18	3,100
Arden....	Aug. 14	6,268	799,076	22	2,420	1,809	48,096	16	2,522	....	.....
Arran	Aug. 30	5,917	756,791	32	3,465	826	20,629	23	3,919	.....	.....
Arden....	Sept. 23	6,161	798,080	185	20,085	1,379	36,428	16	2,631	.....	.....
Arran	Oct. 12	5,518	729,532	156	17,075	1,825	39,041	15	2,422	.....	.....
Arden....	Nov. 4	6,281	799,229	118	12,956	717	15,625	40	6,825	8	800
Arran	Nov. 23	6,618	737,594	50	5,425	1,506	36,046	35	5,960	.....	.....
Arden....	Dec. 15	6,728	864,119	141	15,636	1,691	40,882	42	7,619	25	2,268
Total		79,314	10,251,394	1,536	163,833	14,196	.....	483	.....	102	16,146
Equal to bags of coffee.....		79,314		2,304		3,549		.....	.....	966	

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Specification of cargo shipped in the year 1880, *&c.*—Continued.

Steamers.	Date.	Isinglass.		Cocoa.		Sundries.		Total.		Equal to bags of coffee.
		Packages.	Weight.	Bags.	Weight.	Packages.	Weight.	Packages.	Weight.	
	1880.		*Lbs.*		*Lbs.*		*Lbs.*		*Lbs.*	
Arran	Jan. 24	5	430	.....	.....	11	3,408	3,390	445,025	3,456
Arran	Mar. 3	7	.....	13	1,081	25	.....	4,025	.....	3,717
Houssa	Apr. 3	31	3,775	59	5,507	24	1,784	5,579	646,962	5,188
Arran	Apr. 22	25	2,976	67	6,719	75	14,294	6,494	802,769	6,489
Houssa	May 22	22	2,703	106	10,629	21	2,000	6,876	842,324	6,953
Arran	June 10	11	1,568	115	12,017	43	.....	2,744	.....	2,537
Houssa	July 3	13	2,278	57	6,179	40	3,687	7,024	850,162	6,805
Arran	July 24	1	95	25	2,915	4	144	7,195	763,201	6,114
Arden	Aug. 14	3	375	.....	.....	2	.....	8,120	799,076	6,795
Arran	Aug. 30	1	100	109	10,265	.....	.....	6,908	795,179	6,385
Arden	Sept. 23	1	108	.....	.....	.....	.....	7,742	857,332	6,819
Arran	Oct. 12	1	108	37	.....	1	.....	7,553	788,178	6,297
Arden	Nov. 4	9	1,352	.....	.....	36	3,841	7,209	840,628	6,817
Arran	Nov. 23	5	500	.....	.....	6	2,500	7,220	787,594	6,169
Arden	Dec. 15	8	1,172	.....	.....	1	2¼	8,686	931,669	7,509
Total		143	.....	588	.....	289	.....	96,711	.....	88,050
Equal to bags of coffee		200		882		406		.....	.....	88,050

E. H. PLUMACHER.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Maracaibo, January 15, 1881.

TARIFF OF THE ARGENTINE REPUBLIC—1881.

REPORT BY CONSUL BAKER, OF BUENOS AYRES.

The following is a translation of the Argentine tariff for the year 1881, which I transmit to the Department of State as a matter of general interest to those trading with this republic.

CUSTOM-HOUSE LAW.

ARTICLE I. All foreign merchandise shall pay a duty of 25 per cent. upon its valuation, except the following articles, to wit:

1st. Fire-arms, powder, and all other munitions of war, which shall pay a duty of 50 per cent.

2d. Alcohol, beer, liquors, playing cards, boots and shoes, ready-made clothing, and confections in general, hats, ornaments, harness, carriages, perfumery, tobacco, cigars of all kinds, snuff, wines, arms and fixtures, and powder for other purposes than war, matches, fire-works, furniture, and objects of art, which shall pay a duty of 40 per cent.

3d. Sack-cloth; iron, not galvanized, in plates, bars, ingots or hoops; steam engines; white pine and spruce (unworked), and coarse salt, which shall pay a duty of 10 per cent.

4th. Stone coal, with the exception of that used for the manufacture of gas; jewelry; worked gold and silver; silk thread and fringe; every instrument or utensil having a handle or adorned with gold or silver, when these increase its value one-third; plows; telegraph and fencing wire; staves and casks; printed books in paper, pasteboard, or cloth, without gold edges; printing materials, with the exception of types; white printing paper; lithographic presses; threshing machines and separators; which shall pay a duty of 5 per cent.

5th. Precious stones unset, which shall pay a duty of 2 per cent.

6th. A duty of $1.75 for each 100 kilograms of wheat, and of 4 cents for each kilogram of flour, and the same duty for corn and corn-meal; a duty of 25 cents for each kilogram of tea; of 8 cents for each kilogram of coffee; of 5 cents for each kilogram of starch; of 5 cents for each kilogram of *yerba* (Paraguayan tea); of 7 cents for each kilogram of maccaroni; and of 9 cents for each kilogram of crackers or biscuits.

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ART. II. The introduction of the following articles shall be free of duty, viz: Machinery for industrial establishments or steamboats; blooded animals for breeding purposes; fresh fish; fresh fruit; furniture and tools of immigrants; gold and silver coined or in bullion; live plants; iron rails; benches; cross-ties; spikes; switches; turntables; locomotives and wheels for railways or tramways; iron pipes (unpainted and ungalvanized) for gas or water which have at least 70 millimeters diameter; quicksilver; frames for casks; drills and special powder for mines; seeds which in the opinion of the executive are intended for agricultural purposes; specifics for curing sheep; church adornments asked for by ecclesiastics.

ART. III. Every class of products and manufactures shall be free from export duty except the following, viz: Animal oil; horns and horn-piths; jerked beef; bone ashes; hair; hide cuttings; tallow and suet; bones; unwashed wool; all kind of skins, with the exception of washed sheep skins; ostrich feathers; which shall pay a duty of 6 per cent. on the valuation.

ART. IV. All exemption from duty for imports or exports is hereby prohibited, except as determined by the present law or by contracts made antecedent to the law.

ART. V. The duties shall be liquidated on a *tariff of valuations*, formed on the basis of the true value of the articles in deposit, in regard to those imported, and on the market value, at the time of shipment, of those exported.

Duties on all articles of imported merchandise not included in the *tariff of valuations* shall be liquidated on the values they represent in deposit, as declared by those introducing or dispatching them.

ART. VI. After a period of forty-eight hours, counting from the inspection of the "*vista*," the custom-houses may retain for account of the national treasury all articles of merchandise whose value, as declared, is considered too low, paying immediately to those interested the amount of the declared value with 10 per cent. added in bills omitted by the administrations of the revenue, at 90 days' sight, payable in the form in which the custom-house pays its duties.

ART. VII. The executive of the nation shall designate and fix the values of the merchandise and products which are included in the *tariff* referred to in Article V.

ART. VIII. For wines, oils, alcohols, beer, and liquors in casks there shall be allowed a leakage of 10 per cent., if they come from ports situated the other side of the equator; and of 6 per cent. if from ports situated this side; but no leakage will be allowed if from ports "inside the capes" (*i. e.*, in the River Plate).

There shall also be allowed a wastage of 5 per cent. for breakage on the above-mentioned articles when received in bottles.

The tare, leakage, and breakage on other articles shall be fixed in the *tariff of valuations*.

ART. IX. The duties on exports shall be paid at the first point of shipment, the merchandise being dispatched directly to their destination, transshipment from one point to another of the republic not being allowed except where the duties have been paid or secured.

ART. X. The payment of import duties, where they exceed the amount of $200, may be made by bills satisfactory to the administrator of the customs on stamped paper at 90 days' sight, at the bank rate of interest.

Export duties shall be paid in cash before the sailing of the vessel shipping the articles.

ART. XI. The payment of duties imposed by custom-houses may be made in each locality in the moneys which have been declared legal tender by the nation.

ART. XII. It is prohibited to transship into the interior merchandise which has not paid duty in some custom-house of the republic, except as follows:

1st. That which passes *de transitu* through the ports of Concordia, Federacion, Paso de los Libros destined to ports in Brazil on the Uruguay River.

2d. That which comes from Chili through the province of Salta for the custom-house of Jujuy.

3d. That which passes in transit from the custom-houses of Buenos Ayres and Rosario to those of Mendoza, San Juan, Salta, and Jujuy, and from these to those of Bolivia.

ART. XIII. The executive is authorized to establish the use of *torna-guias* (debenture or export certificates) provided custom-house agreements can be made with neighboring countries.

ART. XIV. The present law shall continue in force during the year 1881.

ART. XV. Let it be communicated to the executive.

The duties established by the foregoing law are recharged with the addition of 1 per cent. fixed by the third article of the law of the estimates (*Ley del Presupuesto*), which is as follows:

ART. III. All merchandise and products which, according to the customs law of 1881, are subject to duty, whether of import or export, shall pay an additional duty of 1 per cent. in accordance with existing laws.

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In accordance with the requirements of Articles V and VII of the foregoing law, the Argentine Government has just issued from the press in tabular schedule a new tariff of valuations for the use of its custom-house officials. As a matter of convenience to American merchants engaged in trade with this country, I translate and transcribe the official values of such articles as constitute principally the exports and imports to and from the United States.

EXPORT DUTIES.

Article.	Unit.	Official value.	Rate.
			Pr. ct.
Oils:			
Animal	100 kilos	$12 00	6
Neat's-foot	do	14 00	6
Ox horns	Thousand	60 00	6
Bucks' horns	1,000 kilos	20 00	6
Salt or jerked beef	100 kilos	11 50	6
Bone ash	1,000 kilos	16 50	6
Hair	100 kilos	40 00	6
Dried beef	do	10 00	6
Dry ox and cow hides	Each	4 00	6
Salt ox and cow hides	do	5 50	6
Dry kips	do	2 00	6
Salt kips	do	2 50	6
Salt kips (unborn)	Kilo	05	6
Dry kips (unborn)	do	25	6
Dry ass skins	Each	1 00	6
Salt ass skins	do	1 50	6
Salt horse skins	do	1 80	6
Dry horse skins	do	1 00	6
Salt colt skins	Kilo	05	6
Dry sheep skins:			
Unwashed	do	20	6
Washed	do	25	Free.
Salt sheep skins	do	12.5	6
Deer skins	do	50	6
Goat skins	do	60	6
Kid skins	do	1 20	6
Nutria skins	do	60	6
Wolf skins	do	70	6
Stag skins	do	50	6
Carpincho skins	Each	1 00	6
Vicuña skins	Kilo	50	6
Ostrich skins	do	4 00	6
Chinchilla skins	do	5 00	6
Hog skins	Each	1 00	6
Lion skins	do	1 00	6
Tiger skins	do	9 00	6
Swan skins	Dozen	2 00	6
Biscacha skins	do	75	6
Fox skins	do	4 00	6
Hide cuttings	100 kilos	5 60	6
Mare's grease or oil	do	13 00	6
Bones	1,000 kilos	16 05	6
Wool:			
Unwashed	100 kilos	30 00	6
Washed	do	35 00	Free.
Tongues, salted or pickled	Kilo	20	6
Horn piths	Thousand	25 00	6
Ostrich feathers	Kilo	4 00	6
Horn points	Thousand	7 00	6
Tallow:			
Melted	100 kilos	14 50	6
Pressed	do	9 00	6
Baled hay	1,000 kilos	12 00	Free.
Alfalfa seed	Kilo	25	Free.

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IMPORT DUTIES.

Article.	Unit.	Official value.	Rate.
			Pr. ct.
Kerosene, naphtha, and petroleum	Liter	$0 07	25
Starch:			
Rice	Kilo	19	(*)
All other kinds	do	11.5	(*)
Rice, North American	do	11	25
Sugar:			
Refined	do	18	25
White or crushed	do	13.5	25
Brown	do	11	25
Codfish	do	13	25
Biscuits and crackers	do	27.5	(*)
Corned beef	do	13	25
Pickled pork	do	13	25
Cigars:			
Havanas in boxes	do	4 25	40
All others in boxes	do	1 70	40
Fire-crackers, boxes of 20 gross	Box	1 40	40
Candies, assorted	Kilo	65	25
Vegetables, preserved	do	37.5	25
Fish, preserved	do	50	25
Pickles:			
English, or their imitations, in jars	Dozen	1 75	25
All other kinds, in jars	do	1 00	25
In barrels	Kilo	17.5	25
Pilot bread	do	08.5	(*)
Flour and corn-meal	100 Kilos	8 00	(*)
Flour, of rice, rye, or oats	Kilo	17.5	25
Soap:			
White	do	20	25
Yellow	do	10	25
Hams	do	55	25
Condensed milk	do	65	25
Butter	do	55	25
Lard	do	30	25
Molasses:			
Refined	Liter	26	25
Common	do	13	25
Oysters	Kilo	35	25
Wicking (North American)	do	55	25
Dried fish	do	14	25
Beans	do	06	25
Cheese, English, Dutch, and analogous	do	55	25
Salmon:			
In oil	do	65	25
In kits	do	50	25
English sauces in bottles	Dozen	3 90	25
Sardines in boxes	Box	36	25
Tobacco:			
North American, leaf	Kilo	30	40
Chewing	do	40	40
Smoking	do	1 00	40
Wheat	100 Kilos	4 00	(*)
Candles:			
Sperm, in packages	Package	40	25
Stearine, &c	Kilo	24	25
Alcohol in casks, &c., from 34° to 40°	Liter	14	40
Angostura bitters, in bottles	Dozen	10 00	40
Beer:			
In bottles, English, German, and Norwegian	do	2 25	40
In casks	Liter	1 50	40
Brandy:			
In casks, up to 19°	do	25	40
In bottles	Dozen	3 75	40
Gin, in bottles, 18° to 21°	Liter	15	40
Vinegar, in bottles	Dozen	1 00	25
Wine:			
In casks, port, sherry, muscatel, &c	Pipe	180 00	40
In bottles, port, sherry, muscatel, &c	Dozen	5 60	40
In casks, table	Pipe	45 00	40
Whisky:			
In bottles, 18° to 21°	Dozen	4 00	40
In casks, 18° to 21°	Liter	34	40
Paper bags	Kilo	18	25
Cards, playing	Gross	15 00	25
Paper:	Kilo	50	25
Linen and mixed, white or colored, for writing	do	27.5	25
Cotton, white	do	16	25
Blotting			

* Specific.

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Import duties—Continued.

Article.	Unit.	Official value	Rate.
Paper—Continued.			*Pr. ct.*
Brown, of 26 centimeters	Ream	$0 25	25
Brown, of 30 centimeters	do	35	25
Brown, larger than 30 centimeters	Kilo	19	25
For bags	do	15	25
Sideboards:			
Common, of mahogany, oak, or walnut	Each	25 00	40
Medium, of mahogany, oak, or walnut	do	35 00	40
Fine, of mahogany, oak, or walnut	do	42 00	40
Two parts, common, of mahogany, oak, or walnut	do	45 00	40
Two parts, medium, of mahogany, oak, or walnut	do	60 00	40
Three parts, fine, of mahogany, oak, or walnut	do	100 00	40
Piano stools:			
Mahogany, oak, or walnut	do	2 50	40
Rosewood	do	3 50	40
Painted	do	2 00	40
Footstools:			
Ordinary	do	80	40
Fine	do	1 20	40
Rosewood	do	1 40	40
Bedsteads:			
Single, mahogany, oak, or walnut (common)	do	25 00	40
Single, mahogany, oak, or walnut, medium	do	33 00	40
Single, mahogany, oak, or walnut, fine	do	46 00	40
Single, rosewood, ordinary	do	30 00	40
Single, rosewood, medium	do	38 00	40
Single, rosewood, fine	do	52 00	40
Double, ordinary to medium	do	32 00	40
Double, fine	do	55 00	40
Double, rosewood	do	40 00 to 66 00	40
Chiffoniers:			
Painted, oak or walnut, ordinary	do	22 00	40
Painted, oak or walnut, fine	do	32 00	40
Rosewood, ordinary	do	27 00	40
Rosewood, fine	do	44 00	40
Commodes:			
Mahogany, oak, or walnut, ordinary	do	8 50	40
Mahogany, oak, or walnut, medium	do	10 00	40
Mahogany, oak, or walnut, fine	do	17 00	40
Rosewood, ordinary	do	12 00	40
Rosewood, medium	do	17 00	40
Rosewood, fine	do	22 00	40
Writing desks:			
Painted, ordinary	do	8 00	40
Mahogany, oak, or walnut, ordinary	do	13 00	40
Mahogany, oak, or walnut, fine	do	21 00	40
Rosewood, medium	do	16 00	40
Rosewood, fine	do	32 00	40
Secretaries:			
Large, painted, mahogany, oak, or walnut, medium	do	28 00	40
Large, painted, mahogany, oak, or walnut, fine	do	50 00	40
Book cases:			
Painted, mahogany, oak, or walnut, medium	do	25 00	40
Painted, mahogany, oak, or walnut, fine	do	41 00	40
Rosewood, medium	do	32 00	40
Rosewood, fine	do	50 00	40
Washstands:			
Small, mahogany, oak, or walnut, common	do	5 00 to 10 00	40
Small, mahogany, oak, or walnut, fine	do	20 00	40
Large, mahogany, oak, or walnut, common	do	22 50	40
Large, mahogany, oak, or walnut, medium	do	36 00	40
Large, mahogany, oak, or walnut, fine	do	48 00	40
Large, rosewood, common	do	30 00	40
Large, rosewood, medium	do	43 00	40
Large, rosewood, fine	do	57 00	40
Center tables:			
Small, mahogany, oak, or walnut, common	do	1 50	40
Small, mahogany, oak, or walnut, medium	do	2 50	40
Small, rosewood	do	4 00	40
Commodes:			
Rosewood	do	6 00	40
Mahogany, oak, or walnut, common	do	4 00	40
Mahogany, oak, or walnut, medium	do	6 00	40
Mahogany, oak, or walnut, fine	do	9 50	40
Dining tables, extension:			
Mahogany, oak, or walnut, common	do	16 00	40
Mahogany, oak, or walnut, medium	do	24 00	40
Mahogany, oak, or walnut, fine	do	38 00	40
Mahogany, oak, or walnut, North American	do	11 00	40

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Import duties—Continued.

Article.	Unit.	Official value.	Rate.
			Pr. ct.
Wardrobes:			
Without glass, mahogany, oak, or walnut, ordinary	Each	$23 50	40
Without glass, mahogany, oak, or walnut, medium	do	30 00	40
Without glass, mahogany, oak, or walnut, fine	do	40 00	40
Without glass, rosewood, ordinary	do	32 00	40
Without glass, rosewood, medium	do	44 00	40
Without glass, rosewood, fine	do	55 00	40
Double doors, with glass, $14 additional to above	do		
Chairs:			
North American, painted, ordinary	Dozen	5 20	40
North American, painted, split bottom, ordinary	do	8 50	40
North American, painted, hair-cloth, ordinary	do	12 00 to 25 50	40
North American, painted, dining, ordinary	do	13 50	40
North American, painted, dining, hair-cloth, oak, or walnut, ordinary.	do	15 50	40
North American, painted, dining, hair-cloth, mahogany, or walnut, ordinary.	do	33 00	40
North American, painted, dining, hair-cloth, mahogany, medium.	do	50 00	40
North American, painted, dining, hair-cloth, mahogany, fine	do	66 00	40
Sets of furniture:			
North American, of oak, walnut, consisting of bedstead, commode, washstand, table, towel-rack, four chairs, rocking chair, &c., common.	Set	50 00	40
Same with wardrobe	do	65 00	40
Harness:			
Single, common	Each	28 00	40
Single, medium	do	38 00	40
Single, fine		42 00	40
Double (double value to the above)			40
Trunks, on their declared value			25
Calf skins, dressed, &c	Kilo	2 00	25
Horse skins, dressed, &c	Each	6 00	25
Sheep skins, dressed, &c	Dozen	14 00	25
Hog skins, dressed, &c	Each	2 50	25
Kid skins, dressed, &c	Dozen	14 00	25
Whips:			
Cart, common	do	3 00 to 7 00	25
Cart, fine	do	11 00 to 18 00	25
Carriage	do	6 00 to 40 00	25
Reins for carriage, common to fine	do	5 00 to 27 00	40
Saddles:			
For men, common to fine	Each	10 00 to 17 00	40
For women, common to fine	do	13 00 to 17 00	40
Shoes:			
Gaiters for men, ordinary	Dozen	25 00	40
Gaiters for men, fine	do	40 00	40
Gaiters for ladies, with or without elastics, ordinary	do	12 00	40
Gaiters for ladies, with or without elastics, medium	do	16 00	40
Gaiters for ladies, with or without elastics, fine	do	24 00	40
Gaiters for children, with or without elastics	do	3 00 to 8 00	40
Boots, high, for men (according to quality)	do	30 00 to 60 00	40
Shoes, low, for men	do	18 00 to 20 00	40
Shoes, low, for ladies	do	12 00 to 20 00	40
Pianos:			
Grand, Chickering, Steinway, &c., flat	Each	700 00	25
Medium, Chickering, Steinway, &c., flat	do	500 00	25
Small, Chickering, Steinway, &c., flat	do	360 00	25

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Import duties—Continued.

Article.	Unit.	Official value.	Rate.
			Pr. ct.
Pianos:			
Grand, Chickering, Steinway, &c., perpendicular	Each	$350 00	25
Medium, Chickering, Steinway, &c., perpendicular	do	300 00	25
Small, Chickering, Steinway, &c., perpendicular	do	250 00	25
Jewelry, on the declared value			05
Watches, on the declared value			05
Clocks, on the declared value			25
American, of wood or zinc	Each	2 00	25
American, eight-day	do	3 00 to 6 00	25
Crystals for watches	100	1 50	
Tar, North American	Kilo	05. 5	25
Benzine, North American	do	10	25
Resin, North American	do	05. 5	25
Chrome, North American	do	04. 5	25
Essence of peppermint, North American	do	7 00	25
Gasoline, North American	Liter	09	25
Red potassa, North American	Kilo	20	25
Tobacco for sheep-wash	do	12 5	Free.
Trusses	Each	1 00 to 2 00	25
Plows:			
North American, common	do	4 00	05
North American, superior	do	10 00	05
Hoes:			
Without handles, common	Kilo	13	25
Without handles, steel, superior	do	19	25
Hinges:			
Iron	do	18	25
Bronze	do	80	25
Pumps for wells, cisterns, and vessels, on the declared value			25
Handles:			
For hatchets, picks, spades, or hoes	Dozen	1 20	25
For scythes	do	5 00	25
For hammers	do	1 00	25
Bells:			
Brass	Kilo	1 00	25
Table, ordinary	Dozen	2 00	25
Table, medium	do	4 50	25
Horse-collars	do	60	25
Padlocks:			
Iron, ordinary	Kilo	40	25
Iron, fine	do	70	25
Pipes:			
Lead, zinc, or composition	100 kilos	14 00	25
Rubber	Kilo	50	25
Stone coal:			
For gas	1,000 kilos	12 00	25
For other purposes	do	10 00	05
Charcoal, on the declared value			05
Bolts or locks, combination, on the declared value			25
Locks:			
With keys, common	Kilo	40	25
With keys, other kinds	do	1 00 to 3 00	25
Bolts, iron	Dozen	1 20	25
Nails:			
Iron	100 kilos	8 00	25
Galvanized	do	13 00	25
Cooking stoves, on the declared value			25
Coke	1,000 kilos	16 00	05
Knives and forks:			
Table, ordinary	Dozen	70	25
Table, ebony handles	do	1 50	25
Table, imitation ivory handles	do	90	25
Dessert, imitation ivory handles	do	70	25
Trowels, mason's	Kilo	70	25
Spoons:			
Iron	do	24	25
Pewter	do	80	25
White metal	do	1 00	25
German silver	do	2 50	25
Electro-plate, common	do	2 00	25
Electro-plate, medium	do	2 50	25
Electro-plate, fine	do	6 00	25

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Import duties—Continued.

Article.	Unit.	Official value.	Rate.
			Pr. ct.
Corn-shellers:			
Small		$6 00 to 10 00	25
Large			25
Carpenter's squares:			
Ordinary	Dozen	3 60	25
Fine, on declared value			25
Shoemaker's awls or punches	Hundred	1 40	25
Wooden shoe-pegs	Barrel	5 00	25
Iron in bars, plates, &c	100 kilos	5 00	10
Water-filterers, on declared value			25
Hatchets:			
Small	Kilo	35	25
Large, for butchers	do	50	25
Without handles	Dozen	5 00	25
With handles	do	6 50	25
With handles, fine	do	9 00	25
Thread, cotton, for sewing sails	100 kilos	70 00	25
Sets for fire-place:			
Three pieces, ordinary	Set	80	25
Three pieces, polished iron	do	1 20	25
Three pieces, bronze	do	2 00	25
Three pieces, other kinds, on declared value			25
Lumber:			
White pine or spruce	Square meter	40	10
White pine or spruce, worked	do	45	25
Poplar	do	50	25
Walnut, cherry, or maple	do	1 00	25
Washing machines:			
North American	Each	16 00	25
North American, without wringer	do	13 00	25
Machines:			
For butter making	do	2 00	25
For butter making, large	do	3 00	25
For mowing	do	100 00 to 130 00	05
For grinding corn, large	do	20 00	25
For grinding corn, small	do	5 00	25
Sewing	do	10 00	25
Sewing, with table, according to quality	do	20 00 to 60 00	25
Hammers, with or without handles	Kilo	30	25
Hand-mills, small	Dozen	4 00 to 8 00	25
Blocks and pulleys:			
Common	Centimeter	02	25
Superior	do	03	25
Steam engines, on declared value			25
Cords or ropes of cotton	100 kilos	60 00	25
Copying presses:			
Large	Each	15 00	25
Medium	do	11 00	25
Small	do	7 00	25
Tacks:			
Iron, for shoemakers	100 kilos	11 00	25
Brass, for shoemakers	do	60 00	25
Files, for carpenters	Dozen	2 80	25
Curry-combs	Kilo	50	25
Rakes (horse)	Each	16 00 to 18 00	25
Plowshares	100 kilos	10 00	05
Plowshares, polished	Dozen	5 50	05
Carbines:			
Ordinary	Each	2 00	50
Remington	do	10 00	50
Cartridges:			
For revolvers, small	Thousand	6 00	40
For revolvers, large	do	6 00 to 8 00	40
Large	do	11 00 to 14 00	40
For carbines, rifles, &c	do	20 00	40

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Import duties—Continued.

Article.	Unit.	Official value.	Rate.
			Pr. ct.
Shot guns:			
One-barrel	Each	$1 80	40
Two-barrel	do	3 00	40
Two-barrel, central fire, ordinary	do	8 00	40
Two-barrel, central fire, medium		14 00	40
Two-barrel, central fire, fine		32 00	40
Pistols:			
One-barrel	Pair	1 50	40
Two-barrel	do	2 50	40
Revolvers, according to quality	Each	2 00 to 13 00	40
Powder	Kilo	0 60 to 1 20	40
Alemanesques, or unbleached cotton:			
60 to 70 centimeters	Meter	12	25
135 to 165 centimeters	do	28	25
Brilliantines, cotton:			
To 90 centimeters, common	do	10	25
To 90 centimeters, medium	do	12.5	25
To 90 centimeters, fine	do	17.5	25
Bombazines:			
Worked, to 70 centimeters, common	do	12	25
Worked, to 70 centimeters, medium	do	16	25
Worked, to 70 centimeters, fine	do	28	25
Plain, to 70 centimeters, common	do	10	25
Plain, to 70 centimeters, medium	do	13	25
Plain, to 70 centimeters, fine	do	18	25
Sheeting:			
Linen, 85 centimeters, common	do	14	25
Linen, 85 centimeters, fine	do	16	25
Linen, for covers, to 100 centimeters	do	25	25
Cotton, white or colored	Kilo	89	25
Ticking:			
Cotton, any width	do	69	25
Mixed, 130 to 170 centimeters, common	Meter	27.5	25
Mixed, 130 to 170 centimeters, fine	do	35	25
Mixed, 130 to 170 centimeters, superior	do	45	25
Cambric:			
Cotton, white or colored, common	do	11	25
Cotton, white or colored, fine	do	14	25
Cotton, white or colored, superior	do	25	25
Dimity, cotton, white or colored	do	12.5	25
Prints, cotton, white or colored	do	50	25
Nankin, cotton, white or colored	do	06	25
Table cloths, on declared value			25
Cretons	Meter	0 16 to 0 40	25
Cretons, reps	do	60	25
Damask:			
Cotton, 120 to 150 centimeters	do	35	25
Mixed, 120 to 150 centimeters	do	45	25
Drilling, cotton	Kilo	83	25
Flannel:			
Mixed, to 75 centimeters, ordinary	Meter	17.5	25
Mixed, to 75 centimeters, medium	do	21	25
Wool	do	0 22 to 0 42	25
Mixed goods:			
Cotton, wool, and silk for clothing, common	do	18	25
Cotton, wool, and silk for clothing, fine		25	25
Cotton and silk for clothing, common	Meter	11	25
Cotton and silk for clothing, medium	do	15	25
Cotton and silk for clothing, fine	do	25	25
Cotton and silk for clothing, superior	do	40	25
Grenadines:			
Cotton, 65 centimeters, common	do	10	25
Cotton, 65 centimeters, medium	do	15	25
Cotton, 65 centimeters, fine	do	25	25
Canvas for bags, 85 to 95 centimeters	do	11	25
Duck, North American, Nos. 1 to 10	do	35	25
Canvas duck for sails, North American	do	22	25
Checks, cotton	Kilo	1 40	25
Merinos:			
Cotton, 80 to 100 centimeters	Meter	13	25
Cotton and wool, 100 centimeters	do	18	25

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Import duties—Continued.

Article.	Unit.	Official value.	Rate.
Muslins:			*P. ct.*
Cotton, to 75 centimeters, medium	Meter	$0 10	25
Cotton, 75 centimeters, fine	...do	12.5	25
Cotton, to 132 centimeters, medium	...do	17	25
Cotton, 132 centimeters, fine	...do	25	25
Cotton, to 165 centimeters, medium		25	25
Cotton, 165 centimeters, fine		32	25
Wool, black or colored	Square meter	30	25
Stockings, cotton, according to quality	Dozen	0 80 to 4 50	25
Socks, cotton	...do	0 75 to 4 00	25
Organdies, cotton, 80 to 100 centimeters, fine	Meter	30	25
Cloth:			
Wool and cotton, plain or gray, for soldiers' clothing, medium	...do	60	25
Wool and cotton, plain or gray, for soldiers' clothing, fine	...do	75	25
Wool, plain or gray, for soldiers' clothing, medium	...do	1 00	25
Wool, plain or gray, for soldiers' clothing, fine	...do	1 25	25
Towelings:			
Cotton, 1 meter long, common	Dozen	85	25
Cotton, 1 meter long, medium	...do	1 50	25
Cotton, 1 meter long, fine	...do	2 00	25
Mixed, 1 meter long, common	...do	1 50	25
Mixed, 1 meter long, medium	...do	2 00	25
Mixed, 1 meter long, fine	...do	3 00	25
Domestics	Kilo	80	25
Drawers:			
Ready-made, for women, cotton, common	Dozen	6 00	40
Ready-made, for women, cotton, fine	...do	10 00	40
Ready-made, for men, cotton, common	...do	3 00	40
Ready-made, for men, fine		8 00	40
Undershirts:			
Flannel or mixed, common	Dozen	7 00	40
Flannel or mixed, medium	...do	12 00	40
Flannel or mixed, fine	...do	20 00	40
Cotton or mixed, common	...do	2 00	40
Cotton or mixed, medium	...do	3 50	40
Cotton or mixed, fine	...do	7 00	40
Crimean, according to quality	...do	8 00 to 20 00	40
Shirts, white cotton, according to quality	...do	4 00 to 8 00	40
Collars:			
Ordinary	...do	1 60	40
For ladies	...do	2 00 to 7 00	40
Pantaloons, men's	Each	1 00 to 2 00	40
Sack coats, men's	...do	4 00 to 6 00	40
Suits for men, wool	...do	7 00 to 15 00	40
Needles:			
Ordinary to fine	Thousand	25 to 1 20	25
Crochet	Gross	1 00	25
Pins:			
In papers of 1,000 to 1,500	Packet	20	25
In papers of 1,600 to 2,400	...do	25	25
Albums for photographs	Dozen	1 00 to 42 00	25
Spectacles	...do	1 00 to 4 00	25
Opera glasses	...do	15 00 to 48 00	25
Field or sea glasses	...do	60 00 to 120 00	25

Import duties—Continued.

Article.	Unit.	Official value.	Rate.
			P. ct.
Penknives:			
Rogers and others, one-blade	Dozen	$3 00	25
Rogers and others, two-blade	do	5 00	25
Rogers and others, four-blade	do	7 00	25
Thread:			
Cotton, in spools of 46 meters	do	09	25
Cotton, in spools of 92 meters	do	16	25
Cotton, in spools of 138 meters	do	23	25
Cotton, in spools of 184 meters	do	30	25
Cotton, from No. 10 to 30, in clews	Paquet	25	25
Cotton, from No. 40 to 45, in clews	do	45	25
Soaps, fancy, according to quality	Kilo	35 to 2 50	40
Lead pencils, according to quality	Gross	40 to 2 50	25
Lamps:			
Glass, for kerosene, according to quality	Dozen	2 50 to 3 50	25
Glass, large, for kerosene, according to quality	do	6 00	25
Glass, very large, for kerosene, on the declared value	do		25
Bills of exchange	Thousand	8 00	25
Blank books	Kilo	33	25
Umbrellas:			
Cotton	Each	07	40
Wool, mixed	do	1 00	40
Silk, according to quality	do	1 25 to 5 00	40
Paper:			
White, for printing	Kilo	20	5
White, for book covers	do	27.5	5
Writing, of all kinds	do	35	5
Linen writing, of all kinds	do	50	5
Wall, according to quality	do	20 to 2 12.5	5
Steel pens, according to quality	Gross	08 to 39	5
Penholders, according to quality	do	35 to 24 00	5
Snuff	Kilo	80	5
Suspenders	Dozen	60 to 12 00	5
Chandeliers:			
For gas or kerosene	Each	8 00 to 24 00	5
Crystal, gas or kerosene	do	16 00 to 40 00	5
Brackets for gas	do	3 00 to 8 00	5

I could further extend this list, but I believe it embraces nearly everything which is at present imported into the Argentine Republic from the United States.

E. L. BAKER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Buenos Ayres, February 28, 1881.

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THE COFFEE TRADE OF MARACAIBO DURING 1880.

REPORT BY CONSUL PLUMACHER.

After a careful examination of the condition of the coffee market in this consular district and the dependencies thereof for the past year, the history of which is a sad one for the coffee producers of this country and for the merchants of Maracaibo, I have the honor to make the following report regarding the fluctuations in the price of this article, and the paralyzation which has taken place in this important branch of trade.

Up to the middle of January of last year, rumors had been circulated here of a serious fall in the price of coffee in the United States, which, however, had no foundation, but whose injurious effect was felt at this port. At that time coffee was selling here at from 15 to 18 pesos per 100 pounds in small lots (the peso being equal to 77.73 cents in United States money), and the merchants here were anxiously awaiting the results of larger sales in order to clearly define the probabilities of the situation.

After a few days the fears of a fall in prices were confirmed by advices from the outer world and a decline of 1½ pesos per 100 pounds took place. Purchasers then held aloof, and stagnation of the market ensued without even transactions of the most insignificant character.

Finally a more natural condition of affairs was restored, and sales commenced at from 14 to 16½ pesos.

But there appears almost a fatality in the last year's business, as scarcely had it begun to revive when it received a new blow which almost entirely overthrew it and frustrated whatever hopes had been entertained of its amelioration.

At the beginning of February, 1880, telegrams were received from New York announcing the complete paralyzation of the coffee trade in that market, and the reduced quotations produced their natural effect in the market at this port. The fall in prices was emphasized, and the bad outlook confirmed, and if by chance sales were occasionally made at good prices, the circumstance could only be considered as an exceptional occurrence, in no way affecting the general situation.

This state of affairs continued until a slight improvement in the New York demand caused here a rise of one-half peso per 100 pounds. This lasted during the month of March, and as this small advance did not indicate a return to the former prosperous condition of the trade, all those interested here continued suspicious and discouraged.

This small rise was not of long duration, and at the end of March new notices from New York destroyed the hopes that had been formed, and April began under the shadow of a situation which was every day becoming more unfavorable, both in the United States and in Europe. Under these circumstances many were obliged to proceed as on past occasions, and made forced sales at prices which bore no relation to those communicated from abroad.

April entered in the same state of uncertainty and fluctuation, but with even worse notices from New York, which produced a further decline of 1 peso, and in May coffee was quoted at from 12½ to 15 pesos per 100 pounds.

This situation remained virtually unchanged during the month of June and until the middle of July, when, thanks to a small increase in

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the sales at New York, the quotations in this market advanced one-half peso.

Confirmation being received of a greater demand and firmness in the New York market, a similar effect was produced here, without, however, an advance in prices, which continued the same as those of the foreign markets; an anomalous circumstance which occurs frequently, occasioning losses of no small consideration.

At this period commenced the depreciation of foreign silver, and its consequent gradual withdrawal from this market, causing a great scarcity of money, as the circulation of such coins was universal. This new disaster caused additional injury, and to a great extent has contributed to the prostration of business, which has continued up to the present.

Having to encounter this new difficulty, all commercial transactions became more and more hazardous, and although notices from New York announced that the coffee market had regained its firmness, little or nothing was done here during the month of September, although some sales were made at an advance of one-half peso per 100 pounds, but only of superior grades, as at a time of stagnation in this branch of trade the lower grades decline enormously in value, there being no demand for them.

At the beginning of October still more unfavorable notices were received from Europe and the United States, and at the end of the month prices were quoted at 12½ pesos with a falling tendency.

Since then, on account of the dullness existing in foreign markets, and the scarcity of money here, prices have gradually declined until now coffee is quoted at from 9½ to 11 pesos per 100 pounds in this market.

As New York is the port receiving most of the coffee sent from here, the failure of several mercantile houses in that city whose principal business was in that product, thereby causing distrust among the speculators and stagnation in this branch of trade, has reacted naturally and injuriously upon the coffee interests here, and this market now remains entirely paralyzed, with no offers for the stock in store, as there prevails among the merchants complete discouragement. The latest advices from New York, however, show an advance in price and an increased animation in the coffee market, which it is hoped will be permanent, and in that case, as the accounts of the crops in the various sections of this district for the coming year are of a very favorable character, it is to be hoped that 1881 may recompense the merchants for their losses in 1880.

In my opinion, the mercantile houses here, instead of dealing exclusively in this one product, would do well to turn their attention also to the other manifold resources of this country, which would enable them to carry on a profitable business even during a period of depression such as we have seen through the past year.

E. H. PLUMACHER,
Commercial Agent.

UNITED STATES COMMERCIAL AGENCY,
Maracaibo, January 10, 1881.

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CONTINENT OF ASIA.

POTTERY AND PORCELAIN INDUSTRIES OF JAPAN.

REPORT OF CONSUL-GENERAL VAN BUREN, OF KANAGAWA.

Our knowledge of Japanese pottery dates from the return of the adventurous Portuguese navigators who, under Vasco da Gama, first visited the East in the latter part of the fifteenth century. Upon their return they brought the first specimens of white translucent porcelain ever seen in Europe. It was known as "Indian siggillata," and consisted of specimens of Chinese and Japanese blue and white ware. This was more than two centuries before Battcher made the first piece of true porcelain produced in Europe.

During the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries glimpses of this Japanese art were seen through the Portuguese and Dutch intercourse with Japan, but it was not until after Japan was open to foreign trade, in the middle of the nineteenth century, that opportunities for a thorough study were afforded.

Japanese chronicles claim that the first pottery was made in the year 660 B. C., but if we accept the testimony of the "shell heap or mounds" it has a much earlier date than that.

It was not, however, until the Christian era that the art made any considerable advances. It is recorded that the potter's wheel was not introduced till the year 724, A. D.

In the year 1223, A. D., great improvements and decoration of ware were made. From that date to the sixteenth century the great potteries of Owari, Hizen, Mino, Kioto, Kaga, and Satsuma were established.

The Rahn-Yaki or crackled ware was first made in Kioto at the commencement of the sixteenth century. The best old Hizen ware, that which is still the most admired, was made in Arita, Hizen, in 1580 to 1585. The old Satsuma dates from 1592.

Porcelain clays are found in nearly all portions of the country, and, what is of great economic advantage, the different kinds are usually found in close proximity and of the purest and best quality, and in many places near water transportation. I believe in all cases every variety of clay used in the manufacture of pottery is found in a natural state. There is no necessity to manufacture the quartzose or fusible clays as is done in other parts of the world and which adds much to the cost of the ware. It is still more remarkable to find one clay that contains both the fusible and infusible materials in such proportions as to make a light, beautiful, translucent, and durable porcelain. I am not aware that such clays are found in any other country. The beautiful egg-shell ware from Nagasaki, so much admired, is so made, and there are other localities where such clays are found and worked.

In order that the chemical composition of porcelain clays may be understood, I gave the formula of a mineral found by Johnson & Blake in true porcelain clay or kaolin, which is as follows:

Per cent. of silica	46.33
Per cent. of alumina	39.77
Per cent. of water	13.9

It is to this mineral that the peculiar plasticity of clays is due. The silica is the fusible and the alumina the infusible element of the clay.

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In proportion as the silica predominates the ware will be nitreous, translucent, light, and brittle, and in the same proportion as the alumina predominates the ware will have weight, opacity, and tenacity, or cohesion.

It must be borne in mind that only opaque, heavy porcelain is made from kaolin, or clay, in which the silica is only from 30 to 40 per cent. of the whole. The fine translucent ware is made by the addition of petunse, a quartzose clay. Petunse is a highly silicious clay resulting from the decomposition of quartzose granite. These two are mixed according to the ware to be made. I believe that natural petunse is not found in Europe or America, but that an artificial quartzose mixture is made to take its place. The two clays, kaolin and petunse, are mixed for common porcelain in the proportion of two parts of kaolin to one part petunse. The biscuits made from this combination will contain from 50 to 60 per cent. of silica and 30 to 40 per cent. of alumina, the remainder being composed of water, soda, potash, magnesia, &c. In the lighter highly translucent ware more petunse and less kaolin is used. In the best ware the biscuit, so mixed, will contain from 75 to 80 per cent. of silicious or fusible matter and from 15 to 18 per cent. of alumina or infusible matter.

In several localities in Japan a single clay, as I have said, contains these materials in the exact proportions required for the various kinds of porcelain.

At Arita, in Hizen, they have a clay that contains 78¾ per cent. of silica and 17¾ per cent. of alumina. From this clay they make the delicate translucent egg-shell ware without the addition of any other matter. From an adjoining bluff they take a clay that has 50 per cent. of silica and 38 per cent. of alumina. From this common porcelain is made.

Nature seems to have mixed these fusible and infusible materials ready for the potter's hands in all the various proportions which he requires for all grades of pottery, from the dark opaque earthen ware to the light translucent egg-shell porcelain; and I repeat that I do not know of any other country where the potter is so favored.

The abundance and general distribution of potter's clay over the whole area of the Japanese Islands is best shown by the following statement of the number of places it is found in in the different provinces:

	No. of places.
Province of Yamashiro	15
Province of Hoki	15
Province of Turoo	3
Province of Iyo	18
Province of Hizen	30
Province of Higo	30
Province of Owari	20
Province of Mikaera	56
Province of Idyn	15
Province of Musashi	12
Province of Mino	26

In the whole of Japan there are 283 localities where this clay is deposited. Of course many of these furnish only inferior clays, but they are all fitted for use in some of the various kinds of pottery.

These clays are thoroughly powdered by means of what are called "balance pounders," run in some localities by water-power, but the work is often done by hand. The powder is then decanted, dried, and stored away in cake form on boards or in flat boxes. This dough does not go through the process of fermentation, as with the English dough in Staffordshire.

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The shaping is almost exclusively done on the potter's wheel, which is set on a pivot working in a porcelain eye. Ordinarily the potter turns his own wheel, but in Hizen it is kept in motion by means of a band connected with its pivot and another wheel turned by a boy.

In making dishes of other shapes than round, a crude mold is sometimes used.

After the clay has been shaped on the wheel it is set away for drying. Usually in two or three days it is considered sufficiently dry for smoothing, which is done on the wheel with a sharp curved knife.

The material is now made into "bisque," or biscuit, by a preliminary baking in small ovens, when it is ready for painting if it is to be painted on the biscuit; if not, it is ready for the glazing. In either event it will then go to the large furnaces for the final baking. The kilns for this purpose are always built on hill-sides, and are connected together, increasing in size from the lower to the higher ones, and in number from 4 to 25. These kilns are so constructed that the draft is from the lowest one, in addition to which each kiln has its own firing place. The result of this construction is that the upper ones are much the most intensely heated, and the ware is arranged accordingly; that which requires the least baking in the lower kiln, and so on. These connecting kilns have the merit of being heat-saving, but they are usually small and badly constructed, and the heat in none of them is uniform.

The glaze is made from the silicious clay and potash extracted from wood-ashes. This potash is not a pure white, which accounts for the usual dirty color of unpainted Japanese ware.

The painting varies in the different districts. In Owari the greater portion of the ware is painted a cobalt blue. The cobalt ore is found in the bluffs near the clay deposits, and is used to paint the cheaper wares. Some German cobalt is used. The best comes from China. The painting with cobalt is done on the biscuit before glazing.

A very handsome ware is now being made in several districts, and painted on the glaze. For this kind of painting the colors are mixed with a silicate of lead and potash and baked the third time in a small furnace at a low temperature.

The coloring oxides in use are those of copper, cobalt, iron, antimony, manganese, and gold. These are used unfluxed by the painter, and are baked in a temperature which fluxes and produces the desired colors.

Some critic has divided all Japanese porcelain painting into two classes—decorative and graphic. The first is used only to improve the appearance of the vessel upon which it is placed. This class includes all the ware except that of the province of Kaga, which was classed as graphic or delineative, and shows all the trades, occupations, sports, customs, and costumes of the people, as well as the scenery, flora, and fauna of the country. I believe he is substantially correct.

It is not within the scope of a paper of this kind to describe all the pottery of the many districts of Japan. I shall, however, allude briefly to some of the principal kinds.

"Owari" ware is made in the old province of that name. It is not as translucent but stronger and more tenacious than some of the Hizen manufacture. The principal potteries are at a village called Sèto, 12 miles from the sea. In this village there are more than 200 kilns. The ware is mostly painted a cobalt blue; the best, as before remarked, being done with Chinese cobalt. Some of this blue and white ware is very beautiful, and I believe is more and more fancied by foreigners. The painting is merely decorative, and consists of branches of trees, grass, flowers, birds, and insects. All these the artist copies from nature

with a skill unequaled by any other people. Within the few past years white ware in foreign styles and shapes has been made and painted in blue, green, and gold. All the Owari ware is true hard-paste porcelain, and is strong and durable.

In Hizen a number of wares are manufactured. The kind known as "Eurari" is made at a place called Arita, but painted at Eurari. The colors in use are red, blue, green, and gold. These are combined in various proportions, but as a rule the red predominates. Generally the surface of the vessel is divided into medallions or figures which alternately have red, blue, or white back-ground, with figures in green or blue and gold. It is certainly a strikingly beautiful ware.

The egg-shell porcelain sold at Nagasaki is made in this province from Arita clay. As I have said in speaking of clays, this ware is made from clay with no admixture of fusible matter except what the clay contains naturally.

The province of Satsuma is noted for crackled ware. It cannot be classed as a true porcelain, or rather it is a soft paste porclain. The old ware was confined to small vessels, but later years some large vases have been made. The glaze is a silicate of alumina and potash, and the best ware has a complete net-work of the finest crackles. The painting is of birds and flowers, and noted for its delicate lines of green, red, and gold.

The "Kioto" ware is much like the Satsuma in color and crackle, but is lighter and more porous. The decorations are also much like the Satsuma ware, being of birds and flowers.

There is a kind of ware made in Kioto called eraku, the whole body of which is covered with a red oxide of iron, and then over this mythical figures in gold are traced.

The "Kaga" ware is faience, and in the style of painting is unlike any other in Japan. The predominating color is a light sesquioxide of iron red used with green and gold. The designs with which it is profusely decorated are trees, grasses, flowers, birds, and figures of all classes of people, with their costumes, occupations, and pastimes, and hence the painting has been called the graphic or delineation style.

The "Banko" ware is made in the country at the head of the Owari Bay. It is an unglazed stone ware, very light and durable, made on molds in irregular shapes and decorated with figures in relief.

On the island of Awadji a delicate, creamy, crackled, soft-paste porcelain is made. The figures used in decoration are birds and flowers, but outlined by heavy dark lines.

There are several varieties of wares made in different parts of the country with glazings of different colors, including various shades of blue, green, yellow, and red. Some of these are exceedingly beautiful.

Besides these few principal manufactures of which I have given an outline, a large number of other kinds of pottery are produced in Japan, and some new styles are being brought into notice.

This important industry has been greatly stimulated by the foreign demand and by the success of Japanese exhibitors at the expositions at Vienna, Paris, and Philadelphia.

The great variety and excellence of Japanese clays, the proximity of their location to the sea, the cheapness of labor, and the beauty and originality of their decorations should, at no distant day, make Japan one of the foremost competitors in the pottery markets of the world.

THOS. B. VAN BUREN.
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Kanagawa, Japan, January 6, 1881.

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AMERICAN TRADE AT NAGASAKI.

REPORT BY CONSUL JONES.

The transactions in the import trade since my last report have not been of much importance. Cotton goods, in which the manufacturers of the United States are more directly interested, have shown an improvement in prices, while woolen goods have declined.

The cheaper kinds of American cotton goods are in demand, not only for this market, but for reshipment to Corea, with which country the native merchants have an exclusive and growing trade. Communication is had by native junks and two small steamers—the latter vessels plying between the ports of Nagasaki and Fugan, in Corea, once a month, and visiting *en route* several intermediate islands, where an exchange in trade is made for the products of their fisheries, shells, &c.

Kerosene oil and lamp ware.—In this connection I would state that lamp goods, consisting of glass, hand, and stand lamps and chimneys, wick and burners, form an important trade, the use of kerosene oil having become general, and the native oil not being adapted to use in lamps.

Drugs and medicines.—The trade in these goods exhibits encouraging results. Until a few years ago the greatest quantity of drugs and medicines imported into this country came from England, France, and Germany; but through the enterprise of American merchants, the bulk of the business has been directed to the United States, and since the American article has taken firm hold and is now the most popular in the market. This trade, however, is so far limited to fine medicines. The coarser qualities for manufacturing purposes appear to be supplied more cheaply by England.

Rubber goods.—The trade in rubber goods consists of sheet rubber, all kinds of packings for machinery, surgical appliances, suction and delivery hose, and a long list of fancy articles and sundries. A great business is done in this line, and the American article preferred in the market to all others.

Canned goods, such as meats, vegetables, condensed milk, fruit and flour, butter, cheese, salt beef and pork find a ready market. This business is not large, but is increasing. The consumption is mostly confined to the foreign population, though the natives, among the wealthier classes, are learning their use and excellence, &c.

Sundries, comprising naval stores, coal, books, printing material, blacking, nails, perfumery, soaps, weighing machines, &c., constitute a valuable retail trade, and are brought here mostly from the larger markets of Japan, by the native merchants.

ALEXANDER C. JONES,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Nagasaki, Japan.

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AUSTRALASIA.

AMERICAN MANUFACTURES IN AUSTRALIA.

REPORT BY THOMAS R. PICKERING, ESQ., UNITED STATES COMMISSIONER TO THE MELBOURNE EXHIBITION.

I am pleased to be able to report that a very fair business is being done by many of our exhibitors, notably those of agricultural implements, railway appliances, plated wares, sewing-machines, railway and other platform scales, leather goods, &c., and it would be well for our manufacturers in the United States to use their utmost exertion to retain the trade thus secured at these Australian exhibitions. Heretofore they have too frequently made, as it were, a convenience of foreign orders, neglecting them in times of business pressure at home, and finding difficulty in regaining the trade when business depression causes them to again seek foreign orders.

Foreign markets require special attention, and the generally acknowledged superiority of American manufactures causes them to be preferred when a supply can be relied upon. It should be borne in mind, however, that the consumer does not deal directly with the producer, and that the merchant who acts for both producer and consumer prefers to obtain his supplies from a source upon which he can rely in times of business expansion as well as in times of depression. This applies more especially to the trade in Australia, situated, as it is, so far from the producing centers of the world.

The great natural resources of Australia are too great to allow the present business depression to be anything but temporary. It would be well for our manufacturers to bear this in mind, and those who have or who desire to have a share of this Australian trade should assure the merchants here that they may rely on being supplied with goods at the sacrifice (if necessary) of a few home orders. I am the more impressed to urge this, having just been shown a letter received by the agent of a Philadelphia firm who are exhibiting here, from which I quote: "*Send us no more orders at present; our home demands prevent us filling foreign orders for some time to come.*"

The probability is that when this firm is again desirous of sending goods to Australia they will find that, while the merchants prefer the American goods, they have been compelled, in order to protect their trade, to send their orders to some source from whence they can rely on always being supplied.

Great difficulty has been experienced in obtaining the necessary number of properly-qualified jurors for the work of adjudicating upon the various exhibits. No compensation being allowed for services, and the fact that nearly every otherwise qualified person is directly or indirectly interested in an exhibit, has rendered the task of selection a very difficult one; especially has this been the case respecting the selection of jurors to represent the United States. The work of adjudication is now progressing, and I inclose a list of awards to American exhibitors in those classes reported upon to date.

It is expected that the jury work will be completed within the next thirty days. I therefore hope to be able by next mail to send you a complete list of all awards to American exhibitors.

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The show of Australian wool held under the management of the Animal Products Committee of the Melbourne International Exhibition, which was open to the public from the 8th to the 16th instant, was the most important wool show ever held in Victoria. The total number of exhibits in all classes was 200, of which the greater proportion were merino wools.

In the interest of the sheep-breeders of the United States, I am pleased to be able to state that I have secured samples of the best fleeces shown at this wool exhibition.

THOMAS R. PICKERING,
United States Commissioner to Melbourne Exhibition.

UNITED STATES COMMISSION,
Melbourne, January 24, 1881.

Awards to American exhibitors at the Melbourne International Exhibition in the classes reported on up to date, January 24, 1881.

FIRST DEGREE OF MERIT.

Exhibitors.	Locality.	Exhibit.
Fairbanks & Co	New York City	Platform scales.
John Adams	Buckland, Conn	Printing paper.
Albion Paper Company	Holyoke, Mass	Do.
Holyoke Paper Company	do	Writing paper.
Crane Bros	Westfield, Mass	Ledger paper.
Bird & Hollingworth	East Walpole, Mass	Wrapping paper.
Case Bros	South Manchester, Conn	Paper boards.
W. O. Daverg & Son	Jersey City, N. J	Tar mill boards.
Scott Paper Company	Philadelphia, Pa	Water-proof wall boards.
Frick & Co	Waynesborough, Pa	Portable engines.
Herring & Co	New York City, N. Y	Burglar and fire proof safes.
Sterling School-Furniture Company	Sterling, Ill	School furniture.
Huston Ship's Berth Company	Boston, Mass	Self-leveling berth.
Degran, Aymar & Co	New York City, N. Y	Oars.
A. Whitney & Son	Philadelphia, Pa	Car wheels.
C. W. F. Dase	New York City, N. Y	Toys.
W. Cameron & Bro	Richmond, Va	Manufactured tobacco.
F. C. Williams & Co	do	Do.
Wm. S. Kimball & Co	Rochester, N. Y	Chewing tobacco.
Do	do	Cigarettes.
Allen & Ginter	Richmond, Va	Do.
Henry A. Ward	Rochester, N. Y	Natural history collection.

SECOND DEGREE OF MERIT.

Fall Mountain Paper Company	Bellows Falls, Vt	Cardboards.
Albion Paper Company	Holyoke, Mass	Writing paper.
Woolworth & Graham	New York City, N. Y	Do.
Randolph & English	Richmond, Va	Paper boxes.
W. F. Kuntz & Co	New York City, N. Y	Lager beer.
C. F. Rumpp	Philadelphia, Pa	Fancy articles.
Henry Barnard	Hartford, Conn	Educational works.
F. W. Bicknell	Boston, Mass	Do.

THIRD DEGREE OF MERIT.

Thomas Bane	Chicago, Ill	School furniture.
J. B. Santifaller	New York City, N. Y	Wood carriages.
W. W. Winship	Boston, Mass	Trunks and bags.
T. B. Peddie & Co	Newark, N. J	Do.
Milton Bradley & Co	Springfield, Mass	Kindergarten toys.

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CONTINENT OF EUROPE.

THE PROHIBITORY LAWS AGAINST AMERICAN PORK IN EUROPE, AND THE REAL MOTIVES FOR THEIR ENACTMENT.

REPORT BY CONSUL MASON, OF BASLE, SWITZERLAND.

CAN TRICHINÆ BE SMOKED AND LIVE? PLACE OF NATIVITY.

On the 23d of the present month, February, notice was given in the Federal Congress of Switzerland that a measure would be introduced to prohibit the importation of bacon, lard, hams, and pork from the United States of America to this country.

This threatened action is based, not upon any recent discovery of trichinæ or other defect or impurity in American meats or lard in Switzerland, but is stimulated and suggested by the fact that the Government of France had a short time previously passed a decree prohibiting the importation of all hog products from the United States into France. The present state of feeling with regard to this matter in Switzerland and adjoining countries is such as to seriously threaten an important and valuable class of American exports, and the undersigned begs leave to submit to the department the following statement of facts.

There prevails among business men in Europe a fear that the protracted and heavy drain of gold from the Old World to the United States may eventually result in a serious disturbance of the monetary balance between the two hemispheres. Any prohibitory enactment which may curtail the influx of American products and compel the people of European countries to purchase their supplies from home producers, is regarded as part of a wise and self-protective policy. Added to this is the fact that American hams, shoulders, side pork, &c., can be profitably imported and sold at from 10 to 20 centimes per pound cheaper than the same articles when produced in Europe. It naturally results from this that butchers, dealers in domestic meats, and farmers who raise hogs for the home market, are strongly opposed to importations from America, and lose no opportunity to make this opposition potent and effective.

The prosperity of the United States under a protective system has produced a great modification of public sentiment on that subject in Europe, and from the comments of the French, German, and Swiss newspapers it would appear that the recent action of the French Government in regard to American meats is believed to have been inspired by the motive of protection to its farmers and its gold supply, rather than by any sense of danger from the impurity of American meats.

The ostensible occasion for the agitation of this subject and the decree of interdiction by the French Government was an outbreak of trichinosis in a family which was at first supposed to have eaten American pork; but it is now officially conceded that the trouble was caused by the flesh of a newly-killed home-bred pig which was eaten in its raw state. In some instances of recent occurrence salt pork of alleged American origin, found infested with trichinæ, has been proven to have come from Germany, where, as is well known, the trichinosis originated many years ago.

For the reasons stated, however, the prejudice against American hog products is so general and uncompromising that the undersigned, in or-

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der to correct, so far as practicable, false impressions, and thus aid in averting the threatened prohibition by the Swiss Government, has unofficially caused to be published in the journals of Basle the following facts:

I. That in the United States all hog products designed for export are carefully inspected, first at the place where the animals are slaughtered, and again at the port of shipment.

II. That there is no instance on record of any person in Europe being injured in health by eating hams or pork imported in a salted condition from the United States, the only danger from trichinæ being through the eating of hog's flesh in a fresh state, recently slaughtered and imperfectly cooked.

III. That from the 1st of November, 1880, until the 15th of January, 1881 (two and a half months), 36,351,000 pounds of lard and 137,987,500 pounds of hogs' flesh have been exported from the United States to Great Britain, where the official inspection of such imports is most rigid, and that in all this vast quantity no instance of insecurity or infection has been discovered.

IV. That almost all authenticated instances of injury to human health by trichinæ have occurred in Germany, where fresh pork is sometimes eaten uncooked, and that no such danger has been incurred from eating salted and seasoned meats.

V. That during a period of two years the principal importer of American meats in the consular districts of Basle has had all such goods which were imported by him carefully inspected by an official designated for that purpose by the city government, and that at the end of that time this inspection was voluntarily discontinued, being considered by the civil authorities no longer necessary.

VI. That the Government of Belgium (as shown by the subjoined official report, which I have had published in the principal newspaper of Basle) has formerly declined to adopt the interdiction against American meats for the reason, as stated, that no just ground for such action has been discovered in Belgium.

The undersigned has further taken the liberty to call the attention of the United States legation at Berne to these facts, and in the absence of precedents or definite instructions, will, until otherwise directed continue his efforts to counteract, so far as may be possible by unofficial means, the prejudice now existing against American meat imports.

Although the latest unofficial report from Paris shows that the decree against American meats has awakened strong opposition, and seems likely to be soon essentially modified or wholly repealed, still the situation in the whole of Central Europe is of such a nature as to seriously threaten an important and growing class of American exports, and imperatively suggests the necessity of increased care on part of American exporters in keeping their meats above reasonable suspicion.

In addition to this, great advantage might be derived from the publication in Europe of an official statement, made under government authority, showing that the reports of hog cholera and trichinosis in the United States have been greatly exaggerated, and that all hog products designed for export are carefully and repeatedly inspected.

The freedom with which the most damaging reports and rumors concerning this subject are published and believed in this country seems, in my judgment, to call for an authentic protest and denial.

FRANK H. MASON,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE AT BASLE,
February 26, 1881.

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AMERICAN PORK IN BELGIUM.

[Translation.]

BELGIUM HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES, SESSION OF FEBRUARY 22, 1881.

[Extract from the official report.]

ORDER OF THE DAY.

M. WILLEQUET. A decree of the President of the French Republic interdicts the entry of all salted meats coming from America into France. It seems to me that this decree is of such a nature as to create a great panic in the country. After exact information, I dare say that there is in Belgium no case of trichinosis; nevertheless, I find it opportune that our people may hear officially from our minister of the interior that there is no danger at present.

M. ROLIN-JACQUEMYNS, *minister of the interior*. It is not my duty to examine the governmental measures in France, but I can reassure our honorable member about the trichinosis matter in our country. For a long time our government has examined the danger question resulting from eating conserved swine-meat. During the past twenty years the academy and the sanitary board have examined the question, but never has any case of trichinosis been found. It is stated that there is no danger when the meat is properly cooked, and uncooked meat is very seldom eaten in Belgium. The government will take no precautionary measures, but will declare some rules, the effect of which will be sufficient.

M. DE DECKER. My thanks to the honorable minister for his declaration. There was some agitation at the Antwerp exchange upon hearing of the French decree. As is well known, the trade in salted meats is very considerable at Antwerp. All observations are favorable to the importation of salted meats from the United States. The few cases of trichinosis were created by home-bred meat.

M. ROLLIN-JACQUEMYNS, *minister of the interior*. I have never had knowledge of any case of trichinosis.

M. WILLEQUET. I am quite satisfied. I made my interpellation merely in order to allay excitement in Belgium.

THE DECREE OF THE FRENCH REPUBLIC AGAINST AMERICAN PORK—STATISTICS OF PORK IMPORTS.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL WALKER, OF PARIS.

Just as I was leaving Paris on the 20th instant, upon a tour of inspection of consulates in the south of France, there appeared in the "Journal Official" a decree of the President of France prohibiting the admission of American pork, on the ground that it is so pervaded with trichinæ as to be injurious to the public health.

Deeming the decree of high importance to citizens of the United States, I gave orders to have it, and the accompanying report translated and forwarded to the Department of State by the next regular post-bag. These translations accompany this dispatch.

On my arrival here yesterday I found the matter one of more pressing urgency than I had supposed, and that a committee of merchants interested in the importations of pork had gone to Paris to confer with the minister of the United States and myself in reference to the decree. I also learned that a large quantity of pork is now on its way from the United States to Marseilles, which will be denied admission under the new decree, while I do not know what remedial measure, if any, the committee in question may seek to obtain.

I have felt it to be so important that further shipment from the United States should be arrested, that I have decided to send to-morrow a dispatch by cable advising you of the decree. I shall also give instruction to

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forward from Paris with this dispatch statistics of the importation of American pork into the three principal ports of France—Havre, Marseilles, and Bordeaux. These statistics might be obtained by consulting the last annual reports of the consuls in those cities, but it seems to me more appropriate that they should accompany this report.

GEORGE WALKER,
Consul-General.

MARSEILLES, *February* 22, 1881.

Importations into France of American pork, during the years 1878, 1879, *and* 1880.

Whence.	1878.	1879.	1880.
	Cwt.	*Cwt.*	*Cwt.*
From United States	664,545	744,586	816,246
From other countries	89,646	95,988	111,364
Total importations	754,191	840,574	927,610
Value in dollars	$9,717,609 68	$8,265,132 30	$8,984,208 68

These figures are extracted from the official returns of the French Government; those of the year 1880 are subject to change.

The following letters from the consuls at Marseilles and Bordeaux show the imports at those ports:

STATISTICS OF PORK IMPORTATION AT THE PORT OF MARSEILLES.

REPORT BY CONSUL GOULD.

I have the honor to transmit herewith the total amount of the salt pork imported at Marseilles for the years 1880 and 1879.

Total imports.	Quantities on which duties were paid.	Amount of duties.
1880.	*Kilogs.*	
Total, 42,326.75 kilogs	27,838.13	$110,290 00
From the United States, 390.102.00 kilogs	26,666,682.00	104,827 00
1879.		
Total, 20,526.10 kilogs	14,453.90	595 52
From the United States, 17,984.48 kilogs	13,027.91	525 91

The above statements show at once the progress made by the trade at Marseilles, the importation having doubled from 1879 to 1880, and also that the market is almost exclusively supplied by the United States.

Another fact may be derived from the same figures, viz, that two-thirds of the importations are received for home consumption, and contribute in a fair proportion to the proceeds of customs at this port.

With reference to the new decree, I inclose a scrap from the commercial paper Le Sémaphore, of this place, relating to the difficulty, under which ships and consignees come very near being placed.

Another instance of the annoyance involved by the unexpected decree prohibiting the importation of American pork is related to me. A sailing ship arrived from New York with provisions, and had already com-

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menced to discharge her cargo, when the custom-house received official communication of the decree, and the landing was stopped at once. The occurrence took place yesterday afternoon, and I do not know whether the sailing ship will be favored as the steamer was, upon the application of the consignees, but if the goods are landed, they will be ordered to the government warehouse and be kept under strict bond, and it is more than likely that the importers will experience some difficulty in disposing of goods which they undoubtedly exported with the intention of selling them on the market for annual consumption.

Although the decree does not concern lard and grease, I thought it well to procure also the figures of importation of such articles. The total imports amounted in 1880 to 13,446,831 kilograms, of which 11,188,190 came from the United States; and in 1879 to 12,480,166 kilograms, 9,332,231 coming from the United States.

This shows that the lard and grease trade at Marseilles is larger than that of salt pork proper, but shows also that the progress was less in proportion for the former than for the latter.

J. B. GOULD,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Marseilles, February 22, 1881.

Translation of an item from Le Sémaphore, of Marseilles, of February 22, 1881.

There arrived yesterday at the Dock basin, at Marseilles, the steamer Vicenz Florio with a cargo of lard and hams of American production. In consequence of the decree prohibiting the admission at the frontier of the territory of the French Republic of all imported salt provisions, the consignees of the cargo petitioned the minister of commerce to authorize the landing of the cargo, which was granted. After a proper identification on the quays, the merchandise will be transported to a warehouse where it will be minutely examined by agents of the government in such a manner as to afford every guarantee to consumers.

PORK IMPORTATION AT BORDEAUX.

REPORT BY CONSUL GERRISH.

I received yours from Marseilles the 21st, yesterday, and have obtained from the custom-house the statistics you desire.

During the year 1880 the importations at this port, direct from the United States, of salt pork, bacon, and hams, amounted to 2,543,497 kilograms.

The first of the new line of steamers direct from Bordeaux to New York has just returned laden principally with the above-named articles, and this recent decree seemed at first to be the death-blow of the enterprise, but a telegram from Paris, this morning, permits the cargo to be landed, subject before delivery to the inspection of the authorities.

The rumor that the American Government had prohibited the entry of French wines caused great excitement here yesterday, but all is tranquil to-day.

B. GERRISH,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Bordeaux, February 24, 1881.

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THE UNJUST INFLUENCES WORKING AGAINST AMERICAN PROVISIONS—NOT PORK ONLY.

REPORT BY CONSUL STANTON, OF BARMEN.

The inclosed article, which appeared in the London Times of the 19th instant, taken in connection with the constantly recurring articles of similar import in the German newspapers, induces me to address a few words to you on the subject of the American pork trade, notwithstanding that many of my colleagues have so repeatedly treated of the matter.

In Germany, and, I think, in all other European countries, native dealers in and producers of pork, bacon, hams, &c., are leagued against us, and leave no stone unturned to create in the public mind a distrust of American wares.

Every discovery of *trichina spiralis* in American bacon is trumpeted through the land, the facts being not unfrequently grossly exaggerated and distorted; while similar discoveries in German bacon are either unnoticed or so published as to be lost in a corner of some provincial journal.

This underhanded warfare against American products is not confined to the pork trade alone, but every comestible issuing from the United States is subject to continual attacks in the German journals.

At one time it is *trichina spiralis*, at another a case of lead poisoning, and again unscrupulous adulteration.

Whether these accusations be based on fact or fancy, it is evident that they are sure to exercise a prejudicial influence in the end, unless our manufacturers and exporters take decided measures for protecting their reputation and guaranteeing the character of their goods.

Reports, such as the accompanying inclosure, have a great effect on the public, and tend to do our export trade immense injury. They are greedily copied into all German newspapers, and the public will be warned against purchasing any edibles issuing from the United States. Such warnings are numberless, and can be found almost daily in some one of the German journals.

From their cheapness, American lard and bacon will always command a market among poorer classes; but the mere possibility that the assertions of Mr. Crump* may be true will turn from American wares all those who can afford to purchase the higher-priced German wares.

Believing that American hams and bacon are just as carefully prepared as those of Germany, and considering the great importance of the pork trade, I deem it my duty to urge upon our pork-packers the necessity of guaranteeing the character of their goods.

I earnestly recommend my countrymen to ship no side of bacon which has not been inspected; to send abroad no lard or butter which is not free from every adulteration, and to instruct their agents to publish by every possible means the fact that American bacon is carefully inspected, that American lard and butter are unadulterated, and that no use is made of diseased swine or the products thereof.

In building up and in maintaining an export trade, particularly in a country like Germany, where so many are desirous of bringing such a

* Acting British consul at Philadelphia.

trade into discredit, too much attention to the character of the goods exported cannot be paid; and an honest and upright policy is one which is sure to pay in the long run.

EDGAR STANTON,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Barmen, February 25, 1881.

WAS IT AN AMERICAN OR A GERMAN HAM?

REPORT BY CONSUL POTTER, OF CREFELD.

I have deemed it of importance to call the attention of the Department to the items which are daily appearing in the public journals in this part of Germany concerning American meats, and which are calculated to seriously diminish the exportation to the continent of Europe of American hams, bacon, and pork. Judging from the present state of public feeling here, it is perhaps safe to express the opinion that this important branch of the export trade of the United States will be wholly destroyed, unless prompt and efficient measures are adopted which will insure the purchasers of American meats of this description against the presence therein of the dangerous *trichina spiralis*.

* * * * * * *

On the 25th of December, 1880, an upholsterer, by the name of Hermann Thelen, purchased in Düsseldorf a ham from a grocer by the name of Joseph Brors. The flesh of this ham (which had been smoked, and was called "sugar-cured") was eaten, uncooked, by the members of Thelen's family, and by others living in his house, and also by relatives who called upon him on Christmas day. In all eighteen persons partook of the meat, and were all soon after taken ill; some the day after eating the ham, and others from five to ten days later, but all with unmistakable symptoms of trichinosis. Of these eighteen persons five have already died, and seven are still very ill, with little hopes of their recovery, and six are considered out of danger.

Joseph Brors, the person from whom the ham was bought, stated that he dealt *only* in American hams, and that he purchased the lot from which this was taken of Messrs. Isambart & Co., American provision merchants, in Antwerp, and with whom he has long dealt, and who are known as selling only first-class goods. The barrels in which the hams were packed were examined, and on one appeared the name of Jones & Stiles, Chicago. There were 19 hams in this barrel, weighing together 300 pounds, and of these he sold several; one he sent to his parents, as a present, and some were cut up and retailed in his shop. Of these, himself and wife partook repeatedly without any ill effects, and, with the exception of the one sold to Thelen, he has not heard of any complaints.

As soon as the case of the Thelens became known, all the hams then in his possession, nine in number, were seized by the police, besides a number of others in the hands of a dealer by the name of Mauser, which were bought at the same time from the same house in Antwerp, and all were submitted to a strict examination, but without finding the slightest trace of trichina. So it was proved that only the ham sold to Thelen was in any way affected, and this, Thelen declares in his evidence before the police, was sold to him as a *Holstein* (German) ham.

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From a portion of this last, which fortunately was found, Dr. Zimmermann, the city medical inspector, found trichina in great numbers.

A letter was addressed to Messrs. Isambart & Co., at Antwerp, requesting them to state whether or not they sold to Joseph Brors, of Dusseldorf, on the 18th or 20th of December last, a lot of hams weighing about 12 pounds each, and at the same time a lot to a Mr. Mauser, of the same city. To this request they replied as follows:

In answer to your letter of the 19th we reply to you that we deal only in American meats, hams, and bacon. That on the 10th of December, 1880, we sent to Joseph Brors and to Wilh. Mauser, of Dusseldorf, two barrels of pickled pork. The barrels contained, one of them, 18 pieces or hams, and the other 19 pieces.

We bought both barrels *indirect*, and they had the mark or brand of Jones & Stiles, packers, Chicago. Whether there were any hams of the weight of 12 pounds among these we cannot say, as we sold them as we received them, and only the weight of the whole and the number of hams in each was known to us. The usual weight of American hams is about 15 pounds. We have no law here for the compulsory examination of hams or bacon, as is the case in Germany, for trichina, or this sad accident would, perhaps, not have occurred; but it is probable these numerous accounts, daily received, of deaths from this cause, will move the government to take some steps in this direction.

We remain, &c.

Mr. Lewis adds:

I called yesterday on Mr. Thelen, the poor man who lost his son and wife by this disaster, and learned from him that his son purchased the ham from Joseph Brors, with the direct *understanding* that it was *Holstein* (*German*) ham. If Brors had told him it was American he should not, he said, have bought it; he wished particularly on this account (he was giving a sort of Christmas feast to his friends) to have a German ham. I saw one of the children of the old Mr. Thelen who had been attacked, but who is now able to go out, but the three children of his son are still in the hospital in a dangerous state. He says there were eighteen persons who partook of this ham, all of whom were more or less affected.

In conclusion, he said he intended to bring an action against the man Brors for damages, the result of which I shall carefully watch.

It does not, therefore, seem to be proved that this particular ham nor that all of those received from Antwerp were, beyond all doubt, American. As they were bought *indirect* we cannot yet know *positively* if the former owner had not opened the barrels and mixed them with other hams not American.

Brors still insists that he only dealt in American bacon, but the trial, when it takes place, will no doubt bring out the facts, and show whether it was a Holstein (German) or American ham.

It will be observed that it is not proved to a certainty that the ham which produced the sad disaster was from the United States. The dealer who sold the ham in question is very soon to undergo trial before the courts. If the facts then developed shall show that the ham referred to was *not* from America, I shall lose no time in making the German public familiar with the fact.

It appears, from investigation, that pork raised in Germany is quite as liable to be infected with *trichina* and other diseases as the American article. A report which appears in the Cologne Gazette, of February 16, 1881, says:

Last year 3,709 pigs were examined at Müllheim, on the Rhine. Among these, two were found containing trichina, and eight as being affected with "*Finnig*." Among the sides of bacon (number not stated) imported from America thirty-seven contained trichina.

But at the present date the current of public prejudice is turned against pork imported from the United States, and the feeling is so strong at this moment that the public will not purchase in the markets meat of this description, unless it contains the mark of a public inspector as being healthy and safe.

As further illustrations of the feelings and demands of the public upon

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this subject, I append the following notice, which appears daily in the public journals of this city:

The undersigned butchers hereby give notice that they have engaged well-known and first class veterinary surgeon Dr. Henry Feger, to examine all their pigs for trichina, before their meat is offered for sale.

CREFELD, *February* 22, 1881.

This notice is signed by 26 butchers and dealers.

If all pork, bacon, and hams leaving the United States for Europe should be carefully inspected by thoroughly qualified officials appointed by the government, and the barrels and canvas covering the hams should be stamped with the official seal and the personal signature of the inspector, I have reason to believe the public here would regard such marks as a sufficient guarantee of safety, and trade in this important article of American exports would soon assume and possibly enlarge its former proportions.

If a law authorizing the appointment of inspectors for such a purpose should be passed, it should contain enactments holding such inspectors to a strict accountability for any error they might make.

The strong prejudice now existing and being created in Europe against American meats would in my judgment, speedily vanish, as soon as it should be announced that such a law had been passed and would be rigidly enforced.

A fee large enough to cover fair compensation for inspection, and to be paid by the packer or shipper, might be provided for, so that no expense for such service would fall upon the government, while at the same time it would make it for the interest of the shipper to be vigilant and careful as to the quality and healthfulness of the meat which he would select for exportation.

J. S. POTTER, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Crefeld, February 26, 1881.

AMERICAN OR GERMAN PORK.

REPORT BY CONSUL GRIGGS, OF CHEMNITZ.

"AMERICANISCHE SCHINKEN TRICHINA FREI"

is the way that "sugar-cured" hams from our country are announced for sale in Saxony. As no such an advertisement is ever made in regard to hams of German production, the announcement alluded to seems an invidious distinction almost amounting to a declaration that those from our country are usually infected with the dread parasites. Indeed, so general is the belief here that they are so infected that the dealers find it very difficult to sell them at 20 cents or even less per pound—whereas German hams sell for from 24 to 38 cents—and this, notwithstanding each ham from our country is accompanied by a certificate that it has been examined and found to be free of trichina.

When it is considered that the American hams are, *at least*, as good as even the best of the celebrated "Westphalian," and that they are warranted "trichina frei," it seems very singular that the people of this country are so slow to buy them. The only explanation for this is that they have been led to believe that to eat American pork is to brave if not to court disease. They evidently do not know that American hogs

are fattened upon the best corn the world produces, and American pork cured in the best manner now known, and that, therefore, our "sugar-cured" hams cannot possibly be of inferior quality; nor do they seem to be aware of the fact that not only are our people the greatest producers but also the greatest consumers of pork in the world, and that, notwithstanding this latter fact, there are fewer cases of trichina sickness in the United States than in Germany. Since June 25 last, no pork has been allowed to be imported from our country into this, except entire pieces—such as whole hams, &c.—and these, as I have before stated, are never offered for sale until they have been examined and certified to be free of trichina.

To the United States, therefore, cannot be charged the many cases of sickness occurring in Germany from the eating of infected pork. Indeed, during my more than four years' residence in this country, I do not remember of having heard of a single case of such sickness attributed to American meat. On the other hand, in the past few weeks I have observed, in the papers, notices of no less than *fifty-six* persons in Germany being made ill by eating German-produced, trichina-infected pork. The almost entire exemption of our people from trichina-sickness is doubtless largely owing to the fact that, in our country, meat is seldom eaten raw, which is not the case here; still, when the great number of hogs slaughtered and large amount of pork eaten by our people is considered, it seems utterly improbable that a larger per cent. of the hogs we kill are infected with the parasites than of those killed here.

Waiving any further discussion as to the relative merits of the pork cured in the two countries, I would beg to suggest—

First. That some organized effort should be made by those of our exporters most directly interested to impress upon the German public, through the medium of the German press, the fact that the pork sent from our country is not only much cheaper than that produced here, but is also as good and as free from disease; and

Second. That all American hams should be examined and known to be absolutely pure before they are exported to Germany. This seems to me quite important, for should even two or three cases of trichina sickness here be traced to meat from our country such fact would be at once telegraphed throughout Germany, and our pork trade with this country would then be ruined. Indeed it is quite probable that the German Government would prohibit any further importation of pork from our country whatever. There is another reason why American pork should be examined at home, and that is that to have it tested in Hamburg or Bremen—where it is now usually examined—increases its cost five pfennige (about 1¼ cents) per pound. This examination could surely be made in the United States, at a much less expense, and then the hams from our country would not be saddled with this additional burden or disadvantage of nearly 7 per cent. in their competition with those of Germany.

In conclusion, I would say that there can scarcely be any doubt but that the export trade of our country with this, in our "sugar-cured" hams, could be increased to many fold its present dimensions, without great difficulty, to the benefit of the consumers no less than that of the producers.

N. K. GRIGGS, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Chemnitz, January 24, 1881.

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AMERICAN PRODUCTS AND MANUFACTURES IN EUROPE.

REPORT BY CONSUL BROOKS, OF CORK, ON AMERICAN TRADE IN EUROPE, AND THE BEST METHODS FOR THE ENLARGEMENT THEREOF.

I have to submit the following suggestions for the information and benefit of American producers and manufacturers generally:

Time was, not very long ago, when on this side of the Atlantic it was the ordinary thing to decry the real worth of *bona fide* American products, industries, and manufactures, and to denounce them as shams. This denunciation was notably coupled with innuendoes about "Yankee cuteness," "bass-wood hams," "wooden nutmegs," and that sort of thing; but this period has now passed, and it is now the ordinary thing to find Irish, English, French, and especially German manufactured goods in these markets prepared and labeled for the express purpose of deceiving purchasers with the pretense that they are American products. This fact of itself shows the advancement made in more recent times by American producers over their foreign rivals, and it is a fact supplemented everywhere by testimony of honest dealers in genuine American articles, who almost unanimously accord to them the credit of superiority as regards cheapness and good quality.

The goods thus referred to are of all classes—canned fruit, canned meats, condensed milk, desiccated vegetables, prepared soups, essences of food, hams, bacon, cheese, butter, household furniture, kitchen accouterments, heating apparatus, gas and water fixtures, plumbers' inventions, agricultural implements, mechanical inventions of every description, and manufactures of all kinds, including boots and shoes and the *cheaper* articles of clothing, hats, caps, &c.

In short, and to attempt a comprehensive idea of the avenues of trade now open on this side of the world to Americans, it is safe to say that all the luxuries and necessities of life (with the exception of so-called indigenous specialties, and wines and spirits and the *higher* grades of clothing) are better made, better finished, and more economical in price and durable in use in America than they are here. Intelligent and observant "traveled" Americans will uphold this statement, for it is their universal experience that those luxuries and necessities are, with rare exceptions, better subserved at home than abroad, and saving a few who may be afflicted with insular and national pride, or are hide-bound by the prejudice of life-long education, the opinion of the average dealer and consumer here is that America has made gigantic progress in advance of the mother country, or countries, in these respects; in fact, they witness constantly recurring illustrations of that progress in the extension of American commerce and American habits of life around and about them. In other words, there now exists in the Old World what might be properly described as a widespread predilection or prejudice in favor of American products and manufactures.

The only thing required now to clinch this prejudice to the extent of increasing the American export trade to almost limitless bounds is to drive spurious articles out of these markets by honestly improving the quality of the genuine ones, and by an intelligent, vigorous, and concerted representation of the benefits, excellencies, economy, and comforts of the latter.

Apparently the repeated recommendations in consular reports and

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dispatches that this result can be accomplished by sending agents or establishing agencies in the chief ports of Europe and other countries, while worthy of emphatic indorsement, have not been so promptly effective as might have been desired. Something more than this is undoubtedly required; something in the nature of a vigorous and concerted representation of especial interests combined, throughout the country.

For example, the numerous specific national commercial and business associations, boards of trade, and chambers of commerce, as well as strong local organizations of the same character, might take the matter in hands as regards their particular "lines" and advertise them by means of traveling agents, lecturers, circulars, newspaper subsidies, and other means, not forgetting the efficacious polyglot pamphlet. This kind of aggregated effort, at whatsoever cost, would result in a wholesale flooding of this hemisphere with pertinent information regarding American products, and the strength of unity, as well as its attendant economy, would be subserved.

Under intelligent management, for instance, the furniture makers of Michigan, the boot and shoe manufacturers of New England, the agricultural implement makers of Ohio, or kindred organizations, might expend $1,000,000, if not a larger sum, in such an experiment, with comparatively trifling cost to individuals in interest, but with the certainty of speedy and remunerative returns.

The numerous trade export journals published in the United States and widely circulated abroad through the several consulates and by other methods, are now the most effective agencies by means of which this kind of representation can be made, and the shrewd advertiser will never fail to take advantage thereof. But I submit that these means could be supplemented by further advertisements, &c., as above explained, which would bring required knowledge directly to the eyes and ears of the prospective consumer.

ED. P. BROOKS, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Cork, Ireland, February 12, 1881.

HOW TO INCREASE OUR EUROPEAN EXPORT TRADE.

REPORT BY CONSUL WILSON, OF BRUSSELS, BELGIUM.

The reports recently submitted to Congress throw a significant light upon the commercial relations of the Unted States with foreign countries, and indicate with no small degree of certainty the character of industrial development upon which we now are, and will be for some time to come, dependent for the great bulk of our revenue, upon foreign trade. In that report it will be seen that out of a total value of our exports to foreign countries in 1879, amounting to $777,093,777, we received for the direct and indirect products of our soil $604,156,492; and in 1880, from the aggregate declared value of our exports amounting to $823,946,353, $746,967,952 were realized from these same products; thus showing that out of a total value of exports, for these two of our most prosperous years, amounting to $1,541,040,130, no less a sum than $1,350,124,444 was paid us for our direct and indirect agricultural produce, leaving only the comparatively small sum of $190,915,684 as the

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amount realized from the foreign sale of all the other combined products of our industry.

On examining these figures it will be difficult to avoid the conviction that at least for the present we must look to agriculture as the chief source of our national wealth, and that if we would secure a permanent increase of this wealth we must avail ourselves of all its varied resources and exert our every energy to increase the foreign sale and consumption of its products.

However rapid have been our strides in manufacture, or successful our efforts in placing its products on the markets of the world, we must not shut our eyes to the fact that as all hope is already lost, at least to the nations of Europe, of rivaling us in cheap agricultural produce, they will yet contend long and fiercely with us for the supremacy in manufacture, and, in this struggle, will develop an amount of energy, both in the way of economical production and impost combinations, to handicap this class of our exports that may for years to come render their European markets at best but limited.

Political economists and statesmen of Central Europe have for some time past been sounding their governments as to the practicability of forming a new commercial confederation somewhat after the style of the ancient German Zollverein, with the implied if not expressed purpose of checkmating the United States in her efforts to possess herself of their markets; and as an evidence of this fact I may here remark that at the "International, Commercial, and Industrial Congress" held in this city last October, this subject was seriously and elaborately discussed by many of the members then present.

To what degree this or any other plan, if found practicable, might affect our manufactures time alone can prove; but that any insulated or combined effort will succeed in hereafter excluding our agricultural produce from the people of Europe, no practical observer of its soil resources and the ever present and imperative necessity of cheap food for the people can believe. Good seasons and abundant harvests may lessen for the time this demand, but they cannot fully supply it; and such is now the strength of the popular will in every country of Europe, Russia probably excepted, that an attempt to deprive the people of cheap bread by the imposition of impost duties, would be an act from which the most firmly seated power might well recoil. It is an undisputed fact that the arable land of a large portion of this continent, as well as of Great Britain, in consequence of tenant farmers being compelled to sell from the soil everything it produces to pay their exorbitant rents, is yearly requiring more artificial fertilization, and that these fertilizers as well as the cost of agricultural labor are constantly growing more expensive. In Belgium the mean cost of cultivating a hectare of land in 1846, including the sum paid for fertilizers, was 68 francs; and in 1876 it had gradually risen to 115 francs, showing an increase of cost to the cultivator of 47 francs per hectare within these years, whilst the produce per hectare has, at best, remained stationary, and the mean price of this produce, in consequence of foreign importation, has rather decreased than augmented. It is an equally well-known fact that under the influence of railroads and other modern improvements the rural population is gradually quitting the fields and grouping itself around the industrial establishments of large cities and manufacturing centers where higher wages are paid, and thus, in addition to higher rents and more costly fertilizers, the European food-producer has to contend with a growing scarcity of field labor and higher wages for that which he does employ. Under the combined influence of these adverse agencies

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it may be confidently affirmed that profitable agriculture and cheap production of food in Belgium—and the same holds good for the entire continent—no longer exist.

If, then, this is a fact—and I, at least, do not entertain a doubt of it—an almost boundless field of profitable enterprise is opened up to the United States. No country in the world can compete with us in the cheap production of breadstuffs, and hence, with the proper commercial accessories, embracing ready, safe, and economical land and ocean transport, sound merchandise, properly packed and cured; with a high standard of business integrity among our exporters, and an intelligent and sustained effort of the Consular corps and other interested parties to increase the consumption of our staple articles and educate the people to the use of those which are new and not well-known, we may confidently expect to reap a yearly increasing golden harvest from the sale of our surplus soil produce. If agriculture is in any country the admitted basis of national wealth, it is *par excellence* in the United States; and when our agricultural population once feels the stimulus of a growing and assured wealth from the foreign sale of their surplus produce, such innumerable demands will be quickly created within our own territorial limits for every species and variety of manufactures as will largely compensate for small sales to foreign countries.

The machinery of a prosperous agriculture, once put in motion, will bring in its train a vast number of public and private enterprises, all creating new demand for our home manufactures. Our farmers will feel the inclination to a more luxurious indulgence in home comforts, their wives and daughters will wear more costly stuffs, and their sons will aspire to a more liberal education, involving a larger expenditure of money to gratify their more refined tastes. In short, such a home demand will be created for our multifarious manufactures as will obviate to a great degree the necessity of seeking for them a foreign market; for, as all men are consumers, it may be safely asserted that there is no element of wealth or prosperous condition derivable from foreign commerce that may not be realized by a favored and industrious people, from the exchange among themselves of the products of a varied industry. But if we can add to our sources of inherent wealth by a constant influx of that of other nations in exchange for our surplus soil products, which their inexorable necessities force them to purchase from us, it becomes our duty to give this subject our first consideration, rather than devote too much effort to the acquisition of commercial gain in a field where for years to come we will have to encounter different traditional tastes, national prejudices, and, above all, a fierce competition supported by the supreme energy of nations clinging to their last source of a departing prosperity.

Large as have been the foreign sales of our direct and indirect agricultural produce, they ought to be regarded as yet in their infancy. Less than ten years since there was scarcely an American ham sold on the continent of Europe, and during the last year our sales of hams and bacon amounted to about $50,000,000. Within a very recent period we commenced to ship butter and cheese, and during the last year we sold in Europe of these two articles to the amount of more than $20,000,000. It is but a few years since the attention of our exporters was called to the field Europe offered for the sale of our Indian corn, and the value of our sales of this grain during the last year amounted to about $54,000,000. The foreign sale of our canned meats, fruits, and vegetables, although of comparatively recent date, has taken an enormous stride, and with honest merchandise carefully and securely

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put up, we may count on an indefinite expansion of this trade; but I regret to say that the sale of our canned meats has been recently somewhat checked by the suspicion of neglect or want of care in selecting sound meats.

Dried fruits and vegetables constitute another element of exportation capable of great expansion. These articles enter largely into the daily food of the working classes all over Europe, and can, I am convinced, be profitably sold by our producers in these markets at less cost to the consumer than they can be furnished on the continent. If the enormous surplus apple crop of the last year had been properly dried and prepared for the markets of Europe, a large sum could doubtless have been realized from that source alone, for the admitted superior flavor of the American apple would have given it, at the same price, the preference with the consumer. The tomato, that now, in some one form or other, constitutes an important article of diet in almost every family in the United States, is comparatively unknown as such on this continent, and yet I am convinced that, with a little more gustatory education, our canned preparations of this vegetable will be an exceedingly popular article of diet both for rich and poor in Europe.

It is a popular illusion with the people of the United States that living for all classes is cheap in Europe, but no one who has not made this subject an object of close observation can have any just idea of the economy that is everywhere practiced both by rich and poor to support, at any reasonable cost, its dense population. Not only is every available field of arable land cultivated to the highest possible degree, and that usually by hand labor, but every nook, corner, and roadside where vegetation will grow is made to yield something for the food of man or beast, and yet food produce is dear. If our farmers were to practice but a tithe of the economy of cultivation to which these people are forced to resort, they could profitably send, of the surplus of the varied produce of their land, to the shores of this continent enough to feed a large portion of its population at cheaper rates than it can be had elsewhere.

Throughout most of our agricultural States the land is yet comparatively new and unexhausted, and the climate admirably adapted to the growth of a great variety of both fruits and vegetables, while on a large portion of this continent the soil is neither intrinsically rich nor is the climate adapted to a great variety of vegetable growth; consequently with our rapidly developing agricultural industry these people will yearly be forced to look more and more to us for not only hams, bacon, beef, and flour, but for dried and preserved fruits and vegetables, and a host of other promiscuous articles of diet which our soil, climate, and native ingenuity fit us cheaply to supply. But we must not be satisfied with sending them hams, beef, bacon, lard, flour, and our other great food staples, for we have an immense source of wealth in the other promiscuous articles of food to which I have just referred. With the refrigerating and other modern improvements now being placed in almost all the transatlantic vessels, there is scarcely a surplus product of our soil, however delicate, that we may not turn into gold by shipping it to the hungry mouths of the laboring classes of this continent.

In this trade we will not encounter the sturdy opposition that is now and will continue to be offered to our manufactures, for cheap and nourishing food produce is a prime necessity of cheap labor that, unlike manufactures, rapidly overcomes all traditional prejudices for forms and styles, and soon forces all fictitious barriers to its adoption.

During my entire consular service I have been more or less interested in seeing all the products of our varied industries sold in Belgium, and

I regret to say that my efforts to assist the introduction of our manufactures have but indifferently succeeded. But I have never found any great difficulty in inducing the adoption of any of the forms of our really meritorious agricultural or food produce, however new or previously untried they were.

JNO. WILSON, *Consul.*

CONSULATE OF THE UNITED STATES,
Brussels, February 5, 1881.

INVESTED CAPITAL IN AUSTRIA.

REPORT OF MINISTER KASSON, OF VIENNA.

There has recently appeared in print, at Vienna, a summary of Austrian capital invested in various corporate enterprises, which may interest statisticians and others concerned with questions touching the wealth of nations. The statement is given for the 1st of January, 1880. From this exhibit I take the following figures for 1879:

Invested in—	Amount invested.	Net profits.	Dividends.	Losses.
	Florins.	*Florins.*	*Florins.*	*Florins.*
Capital stock of Austrian banks	150, 339, 720	16, 084, 670	11, 938, 441	54, 056
Capital shares and priorities of five Austro-Hungarian railroads	1, 612, 167, 700	*51, 396, 116	51, 171, 152	.....
Capital shares and priorities of Austrian railroads	1, 213, 973, 412	*03, 033, 914	60, 642, 770	.....
Of other companies engaged in transportation of passengers and goods	52, 396, 840	6, 301, 657	3, 856, 061	2, 038, 113
Of insurance companies	7, 134, 900	1, 267, 015	816, 800	290, 924
Of construction companies	62, 361, 700	461, 445	282, 250	22, 559, 169
Of industrial companies	182, 047, 503	6, 280, 164	4, 114, 920	9, 047, 929
Totals	3, 280, 421, 775	144, 824, 981	132, 822, 394	33, 990, 191
For 1878 the totals were	3, 159, 840, 290	138, 966, 836	125, 180, 263	39, 280, 010

*Net profits of railroads are composed of all receipts (including State contributions against deficiencies), less expenses of working.

Worthy of remark are the heavy losses in 1878 and 1879 of the "Construction" companies and of the "Industrial" enterprises, which best indicate the previous ruinous depression of business.

Owing to the guarantees by the government of certain dividends and interest on most of the railroad shares and priorities, this great interest does not show its working losses as it would if the railroads had depended upon their earnings alone for their profits, without resort to the public treasury for deficiences, under the State law.

JOHN A. KASSON,
Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.

LEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES,
Vienna, January 26, 1881.

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NAVIGATION ON THE LOWER DANUBE.

REPORT BY MINISTER KASSON, OF VIENNA.

I have the honor to report herewith some interesting statistics of the outward movement of commerce and navigation by the mouth of the Danube during the year last past. The data are given in a semi-official journal of Vienna:

	No. of vessels.	Tonnage.
Vessels departing from Sulina in 1879	2,262	797,554
Vessels departing from Sulina in 1880	1,813	658,063
Diminution from preceding year	449	139,491
Of which the diminution of sailing vessels was		47,652
And of steam vessels		91,839

Quarters of wheat exported in 1879	5,394,708
Quarters of wheat exported in 1880	4,251,331
Diminution of wheat exported, quarters	1,143,377

	Francs.
The receipts of the European Danubian Commission, including pilot and light-house fees, were, in 1879	2,198,053
For the year 1880 they were	1,800,699
Or a diminution last year of	397,354

These comparative losses are attributed to the bad harvests of 1879, and the indications for this year are said to signify a return to the former figures.

In respect to the nationality of the vessels engaged in this commerce, the order in amount of total tonnage (steam and sail) employed in this navigation is as follows: 1st, England; 2d, Greece; 3d, Austria-Hungary; 4th, France; 5th, Turkey. Italy and Russia are feebly represented; and still less Norway, Germany, Holland, Belgium, Servia, and the Island of Samos. The navigation of Roumania alone increased, from 864 tons in 1879, to 1,644 tons in 1880.

In steam navigation England ranked first; France, second; Austria-Hungary, third; Greece, fourth; all the other states feebly, if at all.

In sailing vessels the nationality ranked as follows: Greece, first; Turkey, second; England, third; Austria-Hungary, fourth. The sailing tonnage of England departing from Sulina is given at only 2,543 tons.

JOHN A. KASSON,
Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.

UNITED STATES LEGATION,
Vienna, January 22, 1881.

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THE STAVE TRADE IN THE DEPARTMENT OF THE GIRONDE.

REPORT BY CONSUL JERRISH, OF BORDEAUX.

One of the principal industries connected with the wine trade of Bordeaux is the manufacture of casks of all kinds. The number of cooper shops of more or less importance is stated to be 732, independent of such as are established on the large vineyards and under the direct supervision of the proprietors. Of these establishments 141 are in Bordeaux and 591 in other towns in this department.

The total number of casks manufactured annually is estimated at about 1,200,000, valued approximately at $3,400,000. Besides the casks mostly used, called clarets, for the home trade and exportation of wines, of the capacity of 60 gallons, others are manufactured of 240 gallons, half clarets of 30 gallons, quarter clarets of 15 gallons, and pipes, hogsheads, barrels, kegs, &c., of various dimensions, employed for alcohols, brandies, and other liquids.

The wood employed for staves is white oak, coming from various parts of France, but mostly imported from foreign countries. The foreign staves come from the coasts of the Baltic and Adriatic Seas, and a comparatively small number from the United States. The staves from the Baltic are preferred on account of the close grain of the wood, which for this reason gives great strength and durability to the casks, and are considered better for the preservation of wine; nevertheless they are scarcely employed at present, except for very fine wines, on account of the cost, which is almost double that of staves from other parts.

Numerous letters have been received at this consulate from parties in the United States interested in the stave trade, requesting the addresses of the principal dealers here, with the object of opening a market through correspondence. Apparently, however, correspondence has not thus far produced the desired result, as the importation of American staves has not increased, and is very small in comparison with the importation from the ports of the Adriatic Sea.

During the year 1880 15,716,356 staves, valued at $1,819,800, were imported from Adriatic ports, and only 150,000, valued at $26,000, came from the United States. The principal obstacle to the increased sale of American staves in this port is the not unfounded prejudice concerning them. Objections are made (1) to those that are sawed, and (2) to the unequal manner in which others are split, much more labor being required to prepare them for casks. I had occasion not long since to examine a partial cargo of American staves discharging here, and found that quite a large portion of what purported to be staves was merely cleft wood, measuring in thickness on one side about what is demanded here, and on the other 5 or 6 inches. The log itself might as well be sent, for it would require scarcely more time or labor to cut it as desired. In addition to this many were too short to be used for the purposes for which they were purchased. The staves from the Adriatic are always of uniform length, and the variation in thickness is hardly perceptible. It is nseless to send here a flour-barrel stave or wood in bulk for Bordeaux wine-casks with the expectation of opening up a demand for American staves. The requirements of the market here must be complied with or there can be no sales to any extent. The possibility of creating a regular and important demand certainly exists. I have been thus assured by

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the principal dealers, but, as one of the members of the largest house in this article said to me, "The only way to obtain a satisfactory result is for the dealers of your country to conform completely to the styles and qualities required by the coopers here."

Enough has been stated to give a fair idea of the magnitude of this trade in this department. If proper efforts were made by American dealers and pursued with energy and business tact, large sales, without doubt, might be made. The writing of letters to those who understand the language, or will take the trouble to have the letters translated, may be of value, possibly; but to enable stave dealers in the United States to secure a business here, agents understanding the language of the country should be sent with samples of the wood, and ready to cut it in strict conformity with the indications below. Accustomed for years to receive the article as required from the Adriatic and Baltic coasts, Bordeaux dealers scarcely care to take the pains of entering into a lengthy correspondence, in a language not their own, concerning the quality of the wood, sizes, &c. This market requires the best of wood, perfectly sound, straight, without knots or sap, and not worm-eaten. The staves should be as regular as possible in length, breadth, and thickness; that is to say, a stave should not be wider at one end than at the other, nor thin on one side and thick on the other. The staves from the Adriatic have the great advantage of being very regular and require but little labor to prepare them for casks.

The sizes mostly in demand in this market are—

Pipes, 56 to 58 inches long, 6 to 7 inches wide, 1½ to 2 inches thick.

Hogsheads, 46 to 48 inches long, 6 to 7 inches wide, 1½ to 2 inches thick.

Clarets, 38 to 40 inches long, 6 to 7 inches wide, 1½ to 2 inches thick.

Barrels, 32 to 34 inches long, 5 to 7 inches wide, 1¼ to 2 inches thick.

Kegs, 24 to 26 inches long, 5 to 7 inches wide, 1¼ to 2 inches thick.

The average market value of staves is as follows:

	Francs.
Pipes, the 101 staves	100
Hogsheads, the 101 staves	80
Clarets, the 101 staves	65
Barrels, the 101 staves	42
Kegs, the 101 staves	32

Delivered from on board the vessel.

Sales are generally made payable in six months, but the bills can easily be discounted, if desired, with a deduction at the rate of 6 per cent. per annum. It is an advantage to the shipper to have the goods delivered on board the vessel, as the cost of discharging and storing is relatively large. To give ample time to effect sales on board, the charter party should stipulate a sufficient number of lay days.

The following is the approximate cost of discharging and storing:

Lighterage and transport to storehouse about 2.50 francs the 100 pipes; 2 francs the 100 hogsheads; 1.50 francs the 100 clarets; 1 franc the 100 barrels; storing per month for 1,000 pieces, 60 centimes.

B. GERRISH, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Bordeaux, February 24, 1881.

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AMERICAN APPLES IN GERMANY.

REPORT BY CONSUL WINSER, OF SONNEBERG.

Observing that a communication of mine on the subject of an experimental importation of fresh apples from the United States direct to Central Germany is published in No. 3 (January, 1881) of the consular reports which have been issued by the Department, I find myself compelled to modify the facts then presented in so far as they apply to the second shipment, because my statements, without further explanation, would be apt to mislead. While it is certainly true that the first shipment reached Coburg in fair condition, finding a ready market at satisfactory prices, and that the demand exceeded the supply (only requiring more care in packing, so as to reduce the loss by decay to a minimum in order to secure a repetition of the experiment), the second shipment, which arrived three weeks later, turned out so badly that the enterprise would seem to have been nipped in the bud. I am told that about two-thirds of the last consignment came to hand utterly spoiled, and that the loss was so heavy that a renewal of the risk will not be attempted on the part of the firm who made the experimental venture. It is true that the spoiled shipment was a week longer in transit than the lot which first arrived, but the decayed state of the apples is by no means attributed to this fact only. The barrels were all labeled "selected Baldwins," but there was abundant evidence that the brand was false. Among the sound apples were found numbers of small and shriveled ones, which by no stretch of trade could be called selected or chosen fruit. Ample proof of careless packing also appeared. No pains were taken to prevent the nails which fasten the hoops to the barrels coming in contact with the apples, a circumstance in itself sufficient to account for much decay. It is believed that the damaged shipment was also not so fresh as was represented by the produce dealer of whom it was purchased in New York.

If this last allegation be true, it affords another illustration of how a promising trade may be kept from development by recklessness or carelessness in its initial stages. If a permanent and lucrative trade in apples, as in everything else, is to be done by us with Central Germany, extraordinary care at the outset is an indispensable condition of success. It will never do for dealers and manufacturers, for the sake of immediate gains and a paltry advantage, to palm off inferior wares upon a tentative market, so ruining their future chances, as would seem to have been done in the case in question.

On the part of the public there has been a very general expression of regret at the unfortunate result of this venture in apples, particularly at this time when the orchards of Germany have been almost devastated by the rigorous winter of 1879–'80, and when a supply of good fresh apples from the United States for years to come would be most welcome. The experiment made by the firm of Oscar Strasburger & Co., although in this instance it has turned out unprofitably, has demonstrated nevertheless that fresh apples of good varieties, properly packed for shipment to this distant market, would find ready sale at remunerative prices. Before this can be done, however, confidence in the good faith of the produce dealers must be re established.

HENRY J. WINSER, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Sonneberg, February 25, 1881.

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AMERICAN MANUFACTURES AND AMERICAN PACKING IN GERMANY.

REPORT BY CONSUL WINSER, OF SONNEBERG, GERMANY.

Although this consular district is territorially quite large, it must always be borne in mind that there are no large centers of population; and consequently the opportunities of obtaining information from many sources which would likely prove of value to our exporters are quite limited. Indeed, there is only one importer within this district who deals in a large way in our products and manufactures. This merchant is at the head of the leading house of its kind in New York, and for some years past has kept a depot of American goods at Coburg. In a recent conversation with this gentleman as to the condition and prospects of our goods in the German markets, he spoke on the whole encouragingly. He had found it slow and tedious work to introduce most of the articles in which he deals and had met with many discouragements and losses. But perseverance in the face of difficulties had conquered them to some degree, and his business in American wares had grown to so great an extent that he had recently established a branch of his New York and Coburg house at Hamburg.

I was told that I could not do more toward facilitating and developing the trade in our manufactured goods than by constantly keeping before our exporters a few vital points which they persistently overlook, and to which I have already called their attention from time to time. It is not pleasant to be constantly harping upon one string, but if a perpetual dinning of the same sound will impress it upon the memory of those who ought to know it and to profit by it I shall not hesitate to reiterate what I believe to be good advice.

First, then, I wish to call attention to the fact that a great many American articles are put up in paper boxes, loose and without wrappers, not even fastened in the boxes with twine. Articles of cast iron (and our cast-iron articles are said to be extraordinarily brittle) during transportation are shuffled about by their own weight, causing a great deal of unnecessary breakage, and rubbing off paint and varnish, so that the goods have a damaged look. Proper care, therefore, should be taken to wrap such articles and pack them in appropriate paper, fastening them securely in the boxes to obviate shuffling. The packing of steel and silver-plated goods leaves much to be desired. On account of careless packing this class of articles often comes to hand rusty and tarnished.

Packing cases might generally be improved by making them of lighter stuff of greater elasticity; the cases should be larger and be provided with a division board. The packing cases made in France are generally conceded to be the best. The bottoms of the cases should be more securely fastened on, in order to prevent theft, of which complaint is made. Greater care is necessary also in driving nails, which often penetrate and damage the goods.

Merchandise sent to countries in which customs duties are levied on the weight of the articles should show the net weight exactly. This is an important matter, as when the net weight is given precisely the trouble of opening every box is spared. As a rule our manufacturers are said to be very remiss in this respect, and have occasioned much loss to the consignee or importer by fines and detention of the goods.

Frequent fluctuation in manufacturers' prices is said to be a very great obstacle to the sound development of our export business. Steady prices, even though they are high, are a better basis upon which an exporter or dealer can operate than extreme fluctuations on either side of a normal price. This would seem a self-evident fact.

Often an American manufacturer receives orders from a foreign country which are pressing and admit of no delay. He may, however, at the time be quite busy in making other and better paying articles for the home trade, and so makes no effort to fill the export order, preferring to wait until his convenience is suited or until larger orders are received. Delays of this sort are said to be very damaging, driving customers back to the English, French, and German market, where orders are executed promptly and more carefully.

In concluding these hints to manufacturers, I would urge them to be more liberal in sending to reliable houses specimens and samples of their wares. Price lists and illustrated catalogues come far short of the necessity of the case in introducing articles, often, it is said, doing more harm than good. Above all things patience is indispensable, because the market for a great many good articles is often spoiled by too great eagerness to sell and by power given to irresponsible parties who use it indiscreetly.

H. J. WINSER, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Sonneberg, February 25, 1881.

AMERICAN GAS-BURNING STOVES IN GERMANY.

REPORT, BY CONSUL-GENERAL LEE, ON THE TRADE IN AMERICAN GAS-BURNING STOVES, AND IMITATIONS THEREOF, IN GERMANY.

During the past two years a considerable trade in base-burning stoves, patented and manufactured in the United States, has been established in this city, and has been extended, by branch agencies, over a considerable radius of circumjacent territory.

Meanwhile a corporation in Nuremberg has obtained (November 27, 1877) a German patent for an imitation stove, and, having a sales warehouse here, has brought suit against the agents of the American firms for alleged infringement of that patent.

The American stove is an improved article, last patented October 24, 1876, but introduced to the American market in its original form probably eight or ten years ago. In its present development, and as sold here, it is materially different from, and far superior to, the Nuremberg imitation, but it has never been patented in Germany.

The court in which the suit above mentioned was original brought has decided, as I am informed, that the sale of the American stove is no infringement of the German patent. This decision has been appealed from, and the appeal is now pending in a high court.

Meanwhile, whenever an effort is made to sell the American stove, or to establish an agency for that purpose, representations are sedulously circulated by the Nuremberg interest that a legal process against such sale has been brought, and is now pending, and that all persons buying the infringing article do so at their peril. The sale of American stoves which, though yet in its incipiency, promises, with a fair chance, to be very large, is greatly impeded by these representations, and the chances seem to be that the judicial proceedings will be kept pending as long as

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possible in order that they may be held as a terror over the customers of the American stove agents.

It is not solely, however, in the interest of the American stove trade that these facts are mentioned. The same hindrances might be applied to by far the greater part of the articles manufactured in the United States which are sold in this market. For reasons already given in previous dispatches, comparatively few American inventions have been or are likely to be patented under German laws. On the other hand it would seem from the case now under consideration that patents may be taken out for clever imitations of such inventions, and that judicial proceedings may be instituted for keeping out the original articles as infringements of the imitation. Should such proceedings prevail as to stoves (which I can scarcely believe) they may prevail as to almost anything and everything else, to the great detriment, if not total destruction, of the trade in American inventions not patented under German laws.

I have to suggest, therefore, that this is a subject which may become worthy of consideration as a matter for treaty regulation. It would vastly encourage the manufacture and sale of imitation articles, and thereby contribute in a certain way to the prosperity of German industry if, under judicial construction of the law and the facts, such imitations could be claimed as original inventions to the exclusion of the articles from which they are copied. The temptation to such legal construction is great, and is likely to increase. A condition of things might arise, therefore, under which only treaty stipulations could insure anything like a fair chance to our inventors and manufacturers as against those who borrow their ideas and who resort to legal technicalities and threats, in lieu of original genius, to enable them to compete with their foreign rivals.

ALFRED E. LEE,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Frankfort-on-the-Main, January 15, 1881.

GERMAN SCHOOLS AND UNIVERSITIES.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL LEE, OF FRANKFORT-ON-THE-MAIN.

I.—SCHOOLS.

No two independent nationalities, speaking different languages and living under different geographical conditions, have precisely the same systems of education. There may be general resemblances, but there will also be wide and characteristic differences in their modes of training. The system of Germany, for example, is essentially German, while that of England is essentially English. Each has merits of its own, to be sure, but they are merits which apply mainly to particular social, political, and ethnological conditions. If the one be exchanged for the other, the result must be, more or less, that of making Germans of English and English of Germans. There are respects, no doubt, in which each system may be improved by imitation of the other, or by following suggestions which the other offers, but in their main features they are, and will remain, as widely remote as the social and political characteristics of the two peoples.

TEACHERS.

Germany has been called a nation of schoolmasters, and there can be no doubt that its system of lower, or public schools, is one of the most

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thorough and best adapted for the people, and the purposes for which it was created, that now exists. Its fundamental object is mental discipline or training, and in the pursuance of that object it betrays the method, precision, and directness becoming to a great military country. Teaching in these schools is a profession to which a class of learned men exclusively devote themselves, and to which the state gives at least moral encouragement and protection. The process of teaching, or rather of training, is studied as a science, and the system under which that process is carried out and developed is superintended and molded by the government. A teacher is not expected to be a mere routinist, or drudge, but quite the reverse. He is allowed ample time for private study, and is expected to pursue the paths of science in an original way and in original directions. Three lessons a day are considered a fair amount of recitation-room labor; the remainder of the time can be given to recreation and research. It is not expected that the teacher shall know everything, but it is expected that in some one thing he shall be both thorough and original.

The estimate which is placed upon teaching as a profession is further indicated by the fact that it is one of the best paid of all the intellectual pursuits. Seminaries, as they are called, are established for the special education of teachers in the theory and practice of their calling, and a diploma from one of these institutions is a tolerably sure guaranty of a high standard of qualification. The course of study in the seminaries lasts from one to three years. They are under the supervision of the government.

The proportion of female to male teachers is small. In 1861 it was but 5, in 1863 6¾, and in 1879 9½ per cent. Down to 1873 there were no fixed positions for female teachers in Prussia, and females were only employed at all because a sufficiency of male teachers could not be had. Until 1877, Prussia had but seven female seminaries, of which five had a two years' course, and only two (one of which was a school for governesses) had a course of three years. Of about 200 teachers now annually educated in these seminaries, many become governesses, and others are employed in the middle and higher girls' schools. The qualifications of the female teachers are not considered of a high order, which fact may, in part, account for the limited number employed. Of late, however, considerable effort has been made by the minister of public instruction both to improve the quality and enlarge the sphere of female teaching.

Going to school is a serious business for the German child, and begins at an early period of its existence. About the commencement of its sixth year the child enters upon the elementary training by which it prepares itself for the examination necessary to its admission to the school proper. This preliminary training is accomplished in the lower or primary schools, known as the "elementar-schulen." Here, as in all the higher grades, strict discipline is enforced from the beginning, and obedience gradually becomes an instinct, if, indeed, it is not already an instinct with the German youth.

The schools * are designed to be a complete curriculum of science, provided with teachers of a high order of competency and scholarship. Exclusive of the primary schools already mentioned, they consist mainly

* The schools referred to here, and in the observations which follow, are more especially those of the kingdom of Prussia. The general system, however, is much the same throughout Germany.

of three different classes, viz: (1) The gymnasia, (2) the real schulen, and (3) the gewerbe-schulen.*

THE GYMNASIA.

The gymnasia, in which alone preparation can be made for the universities, are grounded upon the idea that the primary object of school education should be, not the acquisition of knowledge, but the training of the mind. As a means of accomplishing that object, the study of the ancient languages and literatures has been adopted, after prolonged discussion and most thorough and painstaking investigation, as, on the whole, the most suitable and effectual.

Space will not admit of a detailed statement as to the organization and management of the gymnasia. In most of them there are eight different grades, designated as follows, beginning with the lowest: sexta, quinta, quarta, tertia, lower secunda, upper secunda, lower prima, and upper prima. The length of time which pupils are expected to spend in passing these grades ranges from eight to nine years. The modes of instruction in the four lower grades are adapted to the general purposes of life, while the four upper are especially intended as preparatory to admission to the universities. Boys are received into the gymnasia at nine or ten years of age, and are expected to be able, at the time of their admission, to write reasonably well in German and Roman characters, and to understand the common rules of arithmetic.

The attendance in the lower classes is derived mainly from the middle stratum of society, comprising the producing and business elements. The pupils coming from these elements, who do not aspire to a political, scientific, or literary career, seldom proceed beyond the grade of lower secunda, which is to say they quit school in their sixteenth or seventeenth year, after having remained just long enough to exempt them from two years of military service.

The studies in the upper grades of the gymnasia consist mainly of the classics, physics, and higher mathematics. These grades are therefore mainly patronized by such as are seeking a training for a professional, scientific, or higher intellectual career. Among those who avail themselves of the higher studies may be mentioned the wholesale merchants, the proprietors of landed estates, civil engineers, public officials, lawyers, and physicians. Nevertheless the upper classes are but meagerly attended, the great mass of those who are educated for mercantile and industrial pursuits attending the real-schulen.

The curriculum of the gymnasia comprises about the same amount of classics, physics, mathematics, and philosophical studies as is to be found in an ordinary college course in the United States. Comparatively little attention is paid to the modern languages.

Discipline consists in verbal reproof, written reproof, confinement in the class-room, confinement in the school *carcer*, and expulsion.

REAL-SCHULEN.

The real-schulen are distinguished from the gymnasia in having for their chief object what is commonly called practical education, and in

* This classification corresponds, in a certain sense, to the three grand social divisions, which, according to an eminent German writer, are: (1) the governing class, including the nobility, the military, and the high state officials; (2) the middle class, upper and lower; the first comprising those who live by intellectual labor, and the second the merchants, manufacturers, financiers, farmers, mechanics, and lower officials; and (3) "the so-called people," who live by physical labor.

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the subordination of classical study and pure mental training to the principle of utility. Originally the classics were entirely excluded from these schools, but the increasing desire of the middle class for liberal education finally forced their introduction, so that the study of Latin is now permitted in the higher grades, and even required. Nevertheless the realistic principle still prevails in these schools, as may be perceived from their schedule of studies, which may be summaried as follows: sacred history, German, English, French, Latin, geography, profane history, natural science, mathematics, writing and drawing. These studies range through six different grades, and require from thirty to thirty-two hours of school attendance per week.

Boys are prepared in the real-schulen for mercantile and industrial pursuits, and receive also a general scientific training of a somewhat higher order than is necessary for strictly utilitarian purposes. Much attention is given to the modern languages, and the propriety of extending the study of the classics is much agitated. The merging of the real-schulen with the first five grades of the gymnasia is also urged.

Among the real-schulen are many of the so-called handels-schulen, or business schools, in which the various branches of commercial education are taught. These schools have a high reputation for efficiency, and receive considerable patronage from other countries.

GEWERBE-SCHULEN.

The gewerbe-schulen are divided into two classes, the upper and lower, the higher class being identical with the real-schulen, except that the study of Latin is excluded. In these schools boys are prepared for a career in business, or in the mechanic arts, and also for admission to the polytechnic schools, to which the real and gwerbe schulen stand in the same relation as the gymnasia to the universities. The lower school has a course of four years and the upper one of two. The studies include modern languages, sacred and profane history, chemistry, mathematics, architecture, writing, drawing, vocal music, mechanics, and practical employment in workshops. The classics are entirely excluded. The principle of competition is also excluded, as engendering feverish and spasmodic effort, the measure and manner of instruction being adapted as nearly as possible to the capacity of the average boy.

The gewerbe-schulen are patronized by the patrician, middle, and lower classes alike, and are virtually accessible to all boys who have an ambition to study.

Calisthenics is a prominent feature of the instruction and discipline in all the schools, from the lowest grades to the highest.

The gymnasia and other higher schools are provided with libraries for both teachers and scholars, and also with suitable apparatus and mineral collections for illustrating scientific subjects.

Pensions to the widows and orphans of teachers are paid from the funds of various savings institutions established by the teachers for that purpose. Government pensions are also advocated, but are not very likely to be granted.

EXCESSIVE SCHOOL TASKS.

One of the conspicuous merits of the German school system is its thoroughness. It aims to create a certain standard of scholarship, and to this object it makes everything bend. In fact, its vigor in this respect has given rise to much criticism, and is at the present time the

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subject of very general and animated discussion. It is represented that, in the gymnasia especially, the scholars are overburdened with tasks, to the great detriment of their physical and mental well-being. Many pamphlets have been published on both the affirmative and negative side of this statement, and it has also received much attention from the press. The weight of opinion seems to be on the side of the belief that German school children are really overtaxed, and their conspicuous lack of that liveliness and buoyancy characteristic of American children seems to confirm this view.

At a meeting of natural historians and physicians held at Baden-Baden last year, this subject was treated at length in a paper read by Dr. Treichler, who maintained that habitual headache, resulting from excessive study, had greatly increased among school children of both sexes. The principal cause of this headache, according to Dr. Treichler, is not so much the labor performed in the school-room as the additional effort required outside of school hours, especially at night. The exhaustion of the brain and of general vitality, resulting from this excessive mental labor, produces disease and renders all instruction worse than useless. It destroys mental elasticity, confuses the intellectual powers, and engenders a certain mental paralysis which is fatal to all hopes of future usefulness.

Dr. Treichler is not the only eminent medical authority who has sounded the alarm in this matter. Dr. Haase, director of the Brunswick lunatic asylum, has recently published statistics still more startling than Dr. Treichler's statements. In his pamphlet, which lies before me, Dr. Haase mentions five different cases, which came under his treatment, of young people twenty years of age, or under, who became the victims of insanity, more or less pronounced, which was directly traceable, as he believes, to excessive school tasks. Dr. Haase then proceeds to show, in detail, what is the amount of study required of the pupils in a certain North German gymnasium. The conclusion derived from his calculations is, that the aggregate number of hours of labor exacted, in school and out of school, at the gymnasium in question, is *sixty per week, or ten hours per day!*

In other documents, apparently authentic, which are also now before me, it is maintained that in a certain West Prussian gymnasium the tasks exacted of the scholars amount to no less than twelve to thirteen hours a day! This, the writer declares, is perfectly ruinous.

A brochure of recent date, written by a physician whose practice pertains to treatment of the insane, makes similar allegations, and deprecates in most emphatic language the pallor, the want of vivacity, and the early mortality of many German children, all resulting, as he claims, from inordinate school study.

Another unfortunate result attributed to the same cause is the prevailing complaint of short-sightedness, which Dr. Hoffmann, of Wurtzburg, recently declared to be on the increase in the Bavarian schools. Last year the number of short-sighted scholars averaged 5.4 per cent., this year it averages 12.6 per cent. In the higher school grades the average is 7 per cent. greater than in the lower. Myopy is an evil of by no means recent date in the German schools. Statistics collated as long ago as 1844 show that it was then a subject of much complaint, and it has occurred to me that it may arise in part from the peculiar nature of the German alphabet, which, both printed and written, is certainly one of the most trying to the eyesight of any in existence. Recently I was informed that one of the most eminent literary gentlemen in the United States begged a friend in Germany, with whom he corresponds, to write

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his German in Latin characters, because the German script "tore his eyes out like a hawk." The use of the Latin characters, indeed, is steadily increasing, both in writing and printing, and it would doubtless spare many a case of short-sightedness if their use should become universal.

Short-sightedness may also be in part due to badly lighted school buildings, to the extreme shortness of the winter days in this latitude, and to the excessive amount of cloudy weather incident to the climate.

The remark is made that the compulsory gymnastics practiced in the German schools are too cheerless, and lack too much the quality of amusement. The behavior of the scholars is that of quiet obedience, but it stands in painful contrast with that roistering gayety which is the natural humor of a healthy American or English child.

CHANGES PROPOSED.

An eminent German writer,* in discussing the school system of his country, has lately undertaken to show that the system has been too much applied to the cramming of the memory, to the neglect of the training of the intellectual faculties. This writer regards it as a great evil that the so-called practical branches of science have so largely crowded out the classical, which latter he considers the very best means in existence for training and strengthening the mind. Deeming it far more important that a young man shall begin life with a thoroughly disciplined intellect than with a certain stock of information which is, and at best can be, only superficial and imperfect, he would bring back the system of teaching more closely to its normal purpose of intellectual training, and to this end would throw out several of the studies which now task the efforts of the scholar without other result than to produce a certain half-culture and half-knowledge which is rather injurious than beneficial. Thus simplifying the course of instruction, this writer would at the same time reduce the period of attendance in the higher schools to five hours, and the time of preparation at home to not more than two or three hours per day. Among the studies which he proposes to throw out are those of sacred and literary history, German language and literature, and some of the applied sciences. The study of the modern languages he would leave to the free choice of the pupil, believing that it "consumes valuable time and offers no adequate results."

The same writer thinks a great advantage would be gained if, instead of the different sorts of schools now in vogue, one uniform system of liberal education could be adopted for the whole body of the middle class of society. He would break down all lines of educational caste between the mercantile or industrial and the professional pursuits, assuming that all who engage in such pursuits have equal need of a thorough mental training. Placing far more stress upon the discipline of the mind than upon the accumulation of special knowledge, or any mere readiness in displaying it, he assumes that "when once a sound general education has been given, special knowledge is easily acquired in the technical and agricultural schools, or in practical life."

There may or may not be merit in these suggestions. In any event they are interesting as illustrating the best-informed current opinion as to the merits and defects of the German school system.

II.—UNIVERSITIES.

The universities of Germany stand in strong contrast with the schools of that country, and also with the schools and universities

*Karl Hillebrand.

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of other countries. Their main object is to prepare the student for professional life, and the ideas of mental training and discipline are made subservient to that object. It is presumed that when a young man enters the university, the training of his mind has already been completed. He experiences, indeed, with the commencement of his university career, a sort of emancipation, a transition from the dominion of intellectual taskmasters to the sphere of independent thought, action, and investigation. In the gymnasium he receives the training designed to give strength and pliancy to his faculties; in the university he acquires the knowledge and the experience necessary for applying those faculties to some useful purpose. Study now becomes entirely voluntary with him, and he is expected to direct and impel for himself the processes of his mind. He is expected, indeed, not merely to learn science, but to investigate its truths, and to explore the foundations and boundaries of those truths for himself, by personal investigation.

The leading object of English university education, like that of the German gymnasia, is to discipline and strengthen the mind. Study is obligatory, and the subjects of it are prescribed. The student must pursue the course mapped out for him, and has little time or opportunity for independent investigation. It is the object of his studies to prepare him for such investigation, rather than to make it. Like the German student in the gymnasium, he devotes himself to the gymnastic exercise of his faculties, and emerges from his course with comparatively little experience in original inquiry and thought. His mind has been thoroughly trained, but its activity in any particular direction remains to be developed by the practical experience of life. He has familiarized himself with the scientific truths collected by others, but has collected none for himself. His teachers have been men skilled in the art of training, and who have been obliged to devote their time and energies mostly to that branch of their profession.

The German university is, in theory at least, nearly the opposite of all this. The teachers are generally men of eminence in some department of science, and are selected because of their ability and fame for original research. As mere disciplinarians they may have no experience at all, and not much capacity, for that is not their business. Their business is to give the best instruction in that department of knowledge with which they are most familiar, leaving it to the student to avail himself of that instruction in the way and to the extent that may seem to him most fit.* Little restraint exists, and little obligation on the one side or the other, beyond the usual decencies that govern polite and respectful intercourse. The university career is, indeed, to the German student the most independent period of his whole life. Accustomed from his earliest youth to the strictest subordination, he now finds himself at liberty to think and act for himself, a freedom which he not unfrequently abuses by devoting himself to amusements rather than to study. His university course may be prolonged for several years, the first one or two of which it is the custom, in some institutions, to spend in idle, wayward vagabondage, to which public opinion accords a certain license which only students may enjoy. There are, of course, industrious students, who faithfully improve their time simply because they prefer to do so, but a large number spend their time chiefly in *knipes* and other diver-

* Of 4,100 students matriculated at the Berlin University the present session, 1,891 devote themselves to the study of philosophy, 1,347 to law, 585 to medicine, and 284 to theology. From this it will sufficiently appear to how large an extent university life is devoted to abstract and ornamental rather than to practical studies.

sions. It is also not unfrequently the case that the foreign student is not sufficiently acquainted with the German language to converse correctly, much less to comprehend an abstruse lecture.

No attempt will be made here to draw a comparison, as to merit, between the German universities and the English. Each has merits peculiar to itself, and has also peculiar adaptations to the social and political conditions under which it exists. But there is another theme which may properly be discussed, and that is the fitness of these institutions for the education of American youth. An impression widely prevails, or has prevailed, that foreign schools and universities offer to our young people advantages superior to our own. That impression, whatever it may once have been, has ceased to be anything else than a delusion. Whatever German schools and universities may be to Germans, or English schools and universities to English, there can be no question that American schools and universities are altogether the best for Americans. That this fact is beginning to be appreciated on this side of the Atlantic, whether or not it is on the other, is manifested by the favorable publications with reference to the American system of education which have been issued of late from the German press. Our colleges and universities have received in these publications not unqualified but very generous praise, and the same is true of our common and higher schools. It is not claimed that our system is better than the German, or that the latter is better than ours, but that each is, in its own sphere and for its own purposes, excellent.

As was said at the beginning of this article, each nationality must have its own system of education, adapted to the social, moral, and political tastes and peculiarities of its people. The structure of the mind, like the conformation of the body, varies. Shoes made on American lasts are not suitable for German feet, nor are shoes made after German patterns comfortable to American feet. So neither the German nor the English system of education is exactly suitable to the American mental structure. Either system may be made to *do*, but there will always be more or less warping of the faculties in obliging them to conform to the alien pattern. If our young men and women *must* acquire tastes and modes of thought foreign to those of their own country let their parents *accompany* them abroad, and not *send* them. Parents, who send their children so far from home, and intrust them entirely to the care of strangers in a foreign country, can have little idea of the risks they incur in so doing or they would never venture upon so hazardous an experiment. Did space permit, plenty of proofs of this assertion could be given that would be both true and startling.

The supposed superiority of a European education gains much in the estimation of our people from the distance at which they view it. The fact is there is a great deal of superficial education in Europe that passes for a more substantial article. People residing on the continent, or in the British Islands, readily acquire several languages, because they are next door to and have constant intercourse with the nations that speak them. A motive and opportunity to learn languages are thus given which an American cannot have and does not realize. He prefers to devote his time and attention to other subjects which are of more use to him, although he may do so at the expense of his reputation with some people for intellectual accomplishments. The man who can converse fluently in French, German, and English may have a certain passport as a cultivated person, although he may not be able to write either language, and may be ludicrously ignorant of science, and totally wanting in the substantial but not showy elements of culture.

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To thoroughly master any language is the work of a lifetime, and there are comparatively few persons who, with the best opportunities, even master one, to say nothing of many. Edmund Burke remarked that no person may expect to write good English until he is forty years of age, and Macaulay, at the age of sixty, said he had now just fairly begun to write when, as he feared, he was almost done writing. More than Burke or Macaulay could do with the English language alone, the average of mankind can scarcely expect to accomplish with several languages.

A fair conversational knowledge of French and German, quite sufficient for all practical purposes, may now be acquired in the United States. If desired, that knowledge may be improved by foreign travel or residence after the school and collegiate education has been finished. The same is true as to technical and professional knowledge. When the discipline of the mind is thorough, when the character has been formed, and the habits fixed upon a firm moral basis, there may be safety and possibly advantage to our young people in availing themselves of the technical schools of Europe. This is especially true as to art, music, surgery, and medicine. But as a rule, to which the exceptions are few and diminishing, the foreign technical schools are of advantage to Americans only in certain occult specialties of science, which are treated by persons of extraordinary eminence. It should be remembered also that in the fine arts, if we are not to be mere copyists and imitators, we must develop a school of our own, and that the materials, physical and intellectual, which must form the basis of such a school, must be had mainly at home.

As to the professions, the benefits to be derived by Americans from foreign study are limited. Of the law, for example, there is scarcely any branch, unless it be the international, which may not be far more profitably studied at home than abroad. For the purposes of a practical as well as a liberal legal education our own law schools have for Americans no equals. Many of our appliances in surgery are admitted to be the best in existence. American dentists are, as a rule, the most skillful and popular of any in Europe. In electrical science the savants of the old world are just now taking lessons from those of the new. Even in painting and sculpture we are beginning to dispense information as well as to receive it, and so of architecture as far as concerns the comfort and healthfulness of living.

Nothing here said is intended or may be construed in disparagement of foreign school systems. The purpose of these lines will have been accomplished if it shall appear from what has been written that for Americans, just as for other nationalities, a foreign education is unnecessary, and a home education the best. Such was the opinion of the most eminent founders of the American republic, and such must be the conviction of every well-informed and unprejudiced American citizen.

ALFRED E. LEE,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Frankfort-on-the-Main, December 13, 1880.

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THE CORSET TRADE OF WÜRTTEMBERG.

REPORT BY CONSUL CATLIN.

The largest trade in any one article between the kingdom of Württemberg and the United States is in woven corsets. Of a total of $834,441.02 worth of goods of all kinds exported hence to the United States, as declared before this consulate during the last fiscal year, $283,076.13, or over one-third, represented shipments of corsets to the American market, and in every case to New York wholesale dealers, who act as the distributing agents to retail and other wholesale dealers throughout the country.

ORIGIN AND GROWTH.

The manufacture of woven corsets in Württemberg dates from the year 1848, when the first factory was started in Stuttgart with a capacity of 20 looms. From that time up to 1856 the growth of the industry was slow, but in the latter year orders from the United States began to give it a fresh impetus, and a notable increase of production followed. The great development of the industry dates, however, from 1865. In that year the then United States consul, Dr. Glanprecht, reported to the Department as follows:

> There are 110 weaving establishments in the kingdom, giving employment to 6,580 hands. Besides these there are 9,471 professional weavers working on their own account. Upon the whole there are 13,000 looms in activity, among which, for corsets alone, 800. In the latter article, the chief export of Württemberg to the United States, the factories at Goeppingen, Berg, Nürtingen, Stuttgart, Ludwigsberg, and Kirchheim compete with the whole world on account of the cheapness of female labor here—24 kreutzers (16 cents) a day, without board or lodging. The weekly wages of a weaver are from 4 to 8 florins ($1.60 to $3.20) per week.

FLUCTUATIONS.

The extent of the impetus given to the trade by the orders which began to pour in from the United States toward the close of 1865 is best illustrated by the fact that the shipments increased fourfold, *i. e.*, from $246,920.99 to $986,361.82, in value during the following year. With some fluctuations this increased demand was kept up, reaching its highest point in 1872, in which year the value of corset exportations from Württemberg to the United States attained the unprecedented figure of $1,119,771.49. Then came a sudden fall. The year 1873 showed largely reduced shipments ($701,111.80), the decrease thereafter was gradual and steady until the equilibrium was restored, and now the trade averages about what it did sixteen years ago, that is, from a quarter of a million to three hundred thousand dollars per annum.

The sudden falling off in the heavy business reached in 1872 may be variously accounted for. Manufacturers here urge that it was the natural result of the change in tariff imposed upon the entry of their goods into the American market—a change which for an ad valorem duty of 35 per cent. on *all* corsets substituted a specific duty of $2 per dozen on those worth $6 a dozen and under, while continuing the 35 per cent. duty on all over that price.

In this connection a comparative statement of the aggregate customs

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duties collected on corsets in any one year under the old and the new tariff, respectively, would not be uninteresting were the figures obtainable. While undoubtedly the change in tariff referred to may, as is alleged, have operated to some extent in bringing about the falling off in orders from the United States, it is more probable that the latter was mainly due to our great financial panic of 1873 and the long period of prostration which followed it, clogging the wheels of all branches of business, contracting the volume of trade, and largely diminishing consumption. The sudden rise in business in 1865 is easily explained by the then existing necessity for replenishing stocks depleted by the stagnation during our war. Another element probably entering into the calculation is the fact that about that time four millions of emancipated negroes in the Southern States were added to the purchasing population of America. Although this increased demand has in time come to be supplied by our own manufacturers, with whom, in the cheaper lines of goods, the German manufacturer cannot now compete, it can be seen from the largely augmented shipments made between 1865 and 1872 that the enlarged field of consumption referred to had for a time its disturbing effect on the market.

PRESENT EXTENT OF THE INDUSTRY.

At the present time the corset trade of Württemberg employs 1,700 (chiefly hand) looms, and about 4,500 persons. Of this number about 1,700 are male weavers, who are employed under overseers in the different villages, and in gangs ranging from 15 to 50 together. They receive from 5 to 35 cents, according to quality for each corset woven, but the work is such that even the most skillful workman cannot earn over 65 cents in a day of twelve hours. Overseers receive their compensation from the manufacturers in the form of a commission varying from 1½ to 3½ cents on each woven piece or corset delivered. All of the work save the weaving is done by female operatives, about 800 of whom are employed for ten hours daily in the various factories at Stuttgart, Cannstatt, and Goeppingen. Some 2,000 others engaged on the festooning and embroidery work at their homes in the environs of Stuttgart, in the Black Forest, and in the uplands of the Suabian Alps, earning, at most, not over 25 cents per day. Many of those employed in the factories live five or six miles away, and are obliged to trudge that weary distance over the mountains morning and evening, going to and returning from the work which yields them, in ten hours of toil, such a scanty pittance.

ANNUAL PRODUCTION.

The estimated annual production of corsets in Württemberg is a million and a quarter, valued at $750,000, and requiring for their manufacture 40,000 pounds of yarn; each corset taking on an average, 130 grams of that material. For the warp, besides the No. 40 yarn, English No. 50 and No. 60 double-threaded are employed, and for the finish chiefly No. 12 single-threaded of German make.

PROCESS OF MANUFACTURE.

There are sixteen distinct processes through which the corset passes in its transformation from the crude material to the finished article ready for shipment, viz: 1st, weaving; 2d, cutting out; 3d, stitching or seaming; 4th, stamping; 5th, festooning or embroidering; 6th, inser-

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tion of whalebones; 7th, punching eyelet holes; 8th, washing; 9th, starching; 10th, shaping on steam-heated copper forms; 11th, ironing; 12th, eyeleting; 13th, putting in clasps; 14th, silk-fanning; 15th, measuring and ticketing; and 16th, boxing for shipment.

THE TRADE FOR 1880.

Early in 1880, in consequence of a rise in cotton, many speculative orders came in, mostly from the United States and England. The reaction that ensued when cotton fell again and the fall business set in was very detrimental to the trade, as manufacturers were compelled to continue the increased rates of wages in certain departments, caused by the speculative rush in the spring, while, at the same time, it was impossible to keep up the increased selling prices of finished goods, which, as is well known, never keep pace with the increase of cost in raw material; consequently the profits, already crippled by the higher wages paid, were also more than usually diminished by successful American competition during a dull market.

THE NEW GERMAN TARIFF.

To add to these difficulties came the new German tariff of January 1, 1880, which raised the duty on English No. 40 double-thread yarn about 75 per cent., and on horn-slips about 66 per cent. This latter article, which is used as a substitute for whalebone, has to be imported entirely from France, at a duty of 10 marks (about $2.40) per 100 kilos, there being but one manufactory in Germany, and that a small one recently established at Cologne. At the same time, the corset made in Germany and reshipped to France for sale has to pay an entry duty of 15 per cent. ad valorem.*

FOREIGN TRADE.

In short, the corset trade of Württemberg for 1880 shows the anomaly of larger sales but reduced profits. Business with the United States, England, and South America has increased, but the trade with France, owing to the reasons named, is limited to the cheaper lines of goods. No extended trade with Turkey or Roumania is sought for, owing to the financial condition of those countries. Some goods, however, are occasionally shipped thither. Australia has not thus far made any return for the expenditures incurred for an exhibit at the Exposition at Sydney. The field formerly occupied there by Württemberg manufacturers has been completely covered by the English sewed goods. Small consignments are made, now and then, to Spain and Portugal, though in those countries, as well as in Italy, the entry duty is, if not prohibitive, at least very embarrassing. The same is the case with regard to shipments to Russia, where the conditions of credit in vogue and the oppressive tariff combine to render undesirable any extended trade for Württemberg manufacturers. It is, after all, to the United States, England, and the South American republics that these manufacturers look for the continuance of that demand which thus far has made their business grow and prosper.

CHEAPNESS OF LABOR.

Nor would this demand probably long continue were one important factor—*i. e.*, the cheapness of labor—eliminated from their industry. To

* I am indebted to Messrs. J. M. Ottenheimer & Sons, of this city, for many valuable facts in the preparation of this report.

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the comparatively well-paid American operative, artisan, or mechanic it must seem all but incredible that hundreds of women and girls should labor as they do here in the Old World for ten hours per day, week in and week out; walking, many of them, ten miles or more to and from their work, and withal only earning the miserable sum of $6.50 per month, wherewith to provide food, clothing, and shelter; or that expert weavers, with families to support, should, for $17 or $18 per month at most, toil for the half of every twenty-four hours at their looms, with no hope of bettering their condition, even by the closest economy and self-denial.

GEORGE L. CATLIN, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Stuttgart, February 7, 1881.

Statement showing the value of exportation of corsets from Württemberg to the United States for the years ending September 30, 1865, to 1880, inclusive.

Years.	Values.	Years.	Values.
1865	$246,920 99	1873	$701,111 80
1866	986,361 82	1874	*553,425 68
1867	756,138 62	1875	481,257 67
1868	680,273 68	1876	311,039 36
1869	820,597 02	1877	280,083 69
1870	969,029 23	1878	275,072 33
1871	1,054,448 06	1879	253,361 06
1872	1,119,771 49	1880	317,391 03

* Four months and ten days of 1874 unrecorded in consular archives.

REVIEW OF BRITISH TRADE—1880.

REPORT BY VICE-CONSUL-GENERAL NUNN, OF LONDON.

I take the liberty of calling attention to the trade of the year 1880 in Great Britain, and the prospects for the current year, so far as relates to the United States.

The rapid revival of trade in Great Britain in the early part of last year led manufacturers to advance their prices and gave a buoyant feeling to the iron and steel trades as also to chemicals, ship-building, cotton, woolen, and linen manufactures, to leather, tallow, and colonial produce generally; but the rise in prices was too rapid, and met with the usual results—speculators for the rise burnt their fingers, and a general fall of prices in certain articles was the result, especially in pig-iron and raw materials; this fall would, no doubt, have been much greater but for the continued activity of trade in the United States, whereby a steady demand for the supply of metals, chemicals, dry goods, and leather was maintained. It is generally acknowledged that the wide-spreading influence of the trade of the United States has been and is greatly felt by the manufacturers in this country; indeed, the condition of the various markets in the United States is now as anxiously watched as are the returns of the great manufacturing centers of this kingdom.

I now pass on to refer to a few articles more particularly connected with the trade of the United States, for the purpose of indicating how they have ruled in the markets here. Petroleum has been in a very unsteady

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condition during the past twelve months. In the early part of last year prices advanced greatly, but sales were much reduced. In the mean time stocks increased, causing prices to have a downward tendency, but the market was beared by a few speculators and prices were held. I am, however, of opinion that this state of affairs cannot last much longer, as this market is now much overstocked.

Meat, bacon, cheese, apples, and sundries from the United States continue to command ready sales with a largely increasing demand; and if the quality is but kept up so as to secure the estimation of the British people an immense trade in these commodities will assuredly result.

I have but little to report as to the grain markets; the demand for cereals is always steady and it is acknowledged that the supply to be had from the United States is equal to any call that may be made upon it.

Of the manufactures of the United Kingdom and their influence on the trade of the United States I can only give a glance. The amount of exports to the United States was $93,493,295 in advance of the previous year, being nearly 95 per cent. increase, and the imports from the United States were larger than any previous year.

The demand for iron in the early part of the past year was very marked, notably from the United States; and to meet the requirements for an increased supply consequent on the orders received, new furnaces were started, thus causing a rapid increase in stocks, which brought down prices, since which the demand has not been nearly so great.

Cotton goods have also advanced slightly, but this industry has not been marked with much variation in prices and may now be said to be in steady remunerative condition.

Silks have a downward tendency, the large supplies of raw material from China leading manufacturers to believe that the crop was greater than had been anticipated. This assumption, however, has not been realized; notwithstanding this fact, prices have not advanced and trade is not brisk enough to create a rise.

Wools, which at the beginning of 1880 were very high in price, have fallen nearly as low as they were in the spring of 1879. Piece goods (wools and woolens) have not suffered so much by the rapid decline in the raw material as this circumstance would appear to warrant. Diminished production has caused the markets to rule steadier than was at one time expected. The American trade in piece goods has been active throughout the year, greatly to the benefit of the manufacturers.

Leather and hides have experienced a steady trade through the past year. The exclusive purchases for the American markets which had been made in the previous year did not continue in the same ratio; still the sales in 1880 were steady, thus assisting manufacturers, particularly those of dressed hides and fine tanned leather. The trade in Great Britain has been more marked and has undergone a change, a lower quality of leather being now substituted for the heavy English tanned that was worked years ago in the manufacture of boots and shoes, so that they can be produced by large manufacturers at a much less price than heretofore.

Wood shared in the general advance of the early part of the year, particularly deals and pitch pines, but has since fallen and now remains steady at former prices. The large supply of wooden manufactures from the United States, particularly for building purposes, is telling on the staple trade here and the demand is greater than ever, as the quality and material compete with the best made of this country.

Chemicals and all other like commodities advanced in the spring, but receded to old prices with the closing of the year. This trade is not in

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a brisk condition, and quotations generally have a downward tendency and are not likely to improve for some time to come.

Of produce imported I have little to report. Prices rule about the average of last year. West India refined sugar is scarce, but beet and other sugars are plentiful. The prices of coffee and tea have not been sustained; during 1880 stocks were large and holders were losers, sales being slow, and hardly, if at all, remunerative. With the new year a little improvement in these markets has been noted, caused by reduced stocks consequent on exportation, and better prices are now quoted.

The wine trade has steadily improved, and sales have increased.

Tallow has fluctuated but little since the early part of 1880. Both imports and exports have increased, and the market has almost entirely depended on colonial produce.

The carrying trade of Great Britain seems to be greatly extending and increasing. The enormous number of ships built or in course of building shows that there is no falling off, especially as regards the trans-Atlantic business. Steamers seem to spring up weekly to carry the grain and dead meat from the United States; in fact many of the large builders are so full of orders that they cannot undertake new contracts offered to them.

In making this *résumé* of the commerce of Great Britain I desire to call the attention of traders, merchants, and ship-builders of the United States to the advantage offered by a careful study of the principal elements of British trade, and also to direct attention to those points that appear to me likely to be most useful; and I cannot close without remarking on the rapid strides that ship-building (particularly steamers) is making in this country, and to deplore the loss sustained by our citizens in permitting the carrying trade of the world to be practically monopolized by the vessels of other nations.

J. NUNN,
Vice-Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
London, January 19, 1881.

BRITISH AGRICULTURE.

REPORT BY CONSULAR CLERK THIRION, OF LIVERPOOL.

The agricultural area of England may be distributed into three principal divisions.

The five eastern counties of Cambridge, Hunts, Norfolk, Suffolk, and Essex, comprising 4,116,000 acres, may be regarded as pre-eminently corn counties and be designated as first corn district. Of these, 64 per cent. is now under the plow, and only 18 per cent. is in permanent pasture.

Moving westward from the Yorkshire coast to that of Hampshire, there is a second belt of counties, comprising 10,392,000 acres, where also corn growing, though on the whole less markedly, predominates, which may be called second corn district. Throughout this, the average area under the plow exceeds 50 per cent., and that in grass falls short of 30 per cent. These two eastern areas together make up the arable district of England.

All to the west of this last-drawn line to the Welsh boundary may be viewed as the grass district or pastoral belt of English soil. It covers

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a large area, 18,089,000 acres, but its general characteristic is that it has only 29.7 per cent. of its area under the plow, while it has 41 per cent. occupied by permanent grass.

In Wales, which embraces a total area of 4,722,000 acres, 20.9 per cent. is under the plow, and 37.5 per cent. in pasture.

In Scotland, the total area is 19,496,000 acres, of which 18 per cent. is under the plow, and 5.9 per cent. in pasture.

Of 20,820,000 acres, forming the area of Ireland, 24.7 per cent. is under the plow, and 49 per cent. in grass.

The subjoined table exhibits the particulars as to total area, cultivated area, land, and pasture of Great Britain and Ireland, for the years 1870 and 1879, respectively:

Countries.	Total area 1879.	Total cultivated area.		Arable land.		Pasture.	
		1870.	1879.	1870.	1879.	1870.	1879.
	Acres.	*Acres.*	*Acres.*	*Acres.*	*Acres.*	*Acres.*	*Acres.*
England	32, 597, 000	23, 409, 000	24, 504, 000	13, 729, 000	13, 270, 000	9, 680, 000	11, 234, 000
Wales	4, 722, 000	2, 548, 000	2, 759, 000	1, 120, 000	985, 000	1, 428, 000	1, 774, 000
Scotland	19, 496, 000	4, 451, 000	4, 713, 000	3, 486, 000	3, 554, 000	965, 000	1, 159, 000
Ireland	20, 820, 000	15, 653, 000	15, 336, 000	5, 662, 000	5, 138, 000	9, 991, 000	10, 198, 000
Isle of Man and Channel Islands	194, 000	116, 000	125, 000	95, 000	93, 000	21, 000	31, 000
United Kingdom	77, 829, 000	46, 177, 000	47, 437, 000	24, 092, 000	23, 040, 000	22, 085, 000	24, 396, 000

From the above table is deduced the following one showing the changes of the past ten years in cultivated, arable, and pasture land:

Countries.	Cultivated area.		Arable.		Pasture.	
	Increase.	Decrease.	Increase.	Decrease.	Increase.	Decrease.
	Acres.	*Acres.*	*Acres.*	*Acres.*	*Acres.*	*Acres.*
England	1, 095, 000	.....	.....	459, 000	1, 554, 000	.....
Wales	211, 000	.....	.....	135, 000	346, 000	.....
Scotland	262, 000	.....	68, 000	.....	194, 000	.....
Ireland	.....	317, 000	.....	524, 000	207, 000	.....
Isle of Man and Channel Islands	9, 000	.....	.....	2, 000	10, 000	.....
United Kingdom	1, 260, 000	.....	.....	1, 052, 000	2, 311, 000	.....

From the foregoing table it will be seen that one and a quarter million more acres of cultivated area are now accounted for in the United Kingdom, and virtually the whole of this addition takes the form of permanent grass, a classification which has grown also by the application of this less labor-involving form of husbandry to another million acres formerly under the plow. It does not seem generally to have been recognized that it is in Ireland alone that half this transformation has been effected, and that the disposition to convert corn-land into grass is almost wholly to be found in pastoral districts. In the most conspicuous corn area of England there are actually 22,000 acres more arable land, and in Scotland, where the plow is always in favor, 68,000 acres more than in 1870. While reduction of arable land in England generally has been a matter of 3.3 per cent., in the grass district it is 7.4 per cent. In Wales it has been 12 per cent.; in Ireland, over 9 per cent.

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The percentage of the total area under cultivation at the beginning and at the end of the decade, and the percentage in arable and pasture respectively at these dates, appears from the following table:

PERCENTAGE OF THE TOTAL AREA.

Countries.	Cultivated area.		Arable land.		Pasture.	
	1870.	1879.	1870.	1879.	1870.	1879.
	Per ct.	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*
England	71.8	75.2	42.1	40.7	29.7	34.5
Wales	54.0	58.4	23.7	20.9	30.2	37.5
Scotland	22.8	24.2	17.9	18.2	4.9	5.9
Ireland	75.2	73.7	27.2	24.7	48.0	49.0
Isle of Man and Channel Islands	59.8	64.4	49.0	47.0	10.8	16.0
United Kingdom	57.3	61.0	31.0	29.6	28.4	31.3

The following table of the percentage, not of the absolute but of the cultivated area, will give a clear view of the relative character of the agriculture of the several sections of the country:

PERCENTAGE OF THE CULTIVATED AREA.

Countries.	Arable.		Pasture.	
	1870.	1879.	1870.	1879.
	Per cent.	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*
England	58.6	54.1	41.4	45.9
Wales	44.0	35.7	56.0	64.3
Scotland	78.3	75.4	21.7	24.6
Ireland	36.2	33.5	63.8	66.5
Isle of Man and Channel Islands	81.9	74.4	18.1	25.6
United Kingdom	52.2	48.6	47.8	51.4

It may be noted as a distinct and characteristic effect of the ten years' changes and extension of cultivated area that, whereas in the United Kingdom as a whole, rather more than half of that area was in 1870 accounted arable and rather less pastoral, now the positions are almost exactly reversed, and the pasture exceeds the arable by just about the same relative proportions.

CHANGES IN CORN-CROPPED LAND.

Very nearly a million acres less of corn was grown in the United Kingdom in 1879 than at the beginning of the decade. This is practically the reduction visible in arable land generally, and, as in that case, Ireland, not England, is the scene of the largest proportionate change. Over the whole eastern and arable division of England, the diminution of corn is but 3.1 per cent. against 10.7 per cent. in the grazing counties. It is clear agriculturists are not yet hurriedly abandoning the cultivation of corn in districts and soils most suited to its growth, but are stirred up by the keen competition of America to appropriate more carefully their land to the most distinctly suitable form of crops.

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WHEAT CHANGES.

The foremost item of the corn changes is of course the smaller breadth of wheat now cultivated. These changes are given in the following table:

Countries.	1870.	1879.	Decrease.	Decrease.
	Acres.	*Acres.*	*Acres.*	*Per cent.*
England	3,248,000	2,719,000	529,000	16.3
Wales	127,000	95,000	32,000	25.2
Scotland	126,000	76,000	50,000	39.7
Ireland	260,000	158,000	102,000	39.2
Isle of Man and Channel Islands	12,000	8,000	4,000	33.3
United Kingdom	3,773,000	3,056,000	717,000	19.0

Here the change in the aggregate is nearly three-quarters of a million acres, and in England alone it is more than half a million; but as England is the only important wheat-growing section of the United Kingdom, containing some nine-tenths of the wheat land, this result is to be expected. It is not, however, in England so much as in Scotland or Ireland that the largest relative abandonment of wheat appears. North of the Tweed wheat has never been a favorite crop, but five and twenty years ago Scotland had not far short of 200,000 acres of this cereal. Ten years ago this area had shrunk to the diminished figure of 126,000 acres, and even that small section is now reduced by well nigh 40 per cent. The Irish reductions show a similar percentage of diminution. In Wales 25 per cent. less wheat appears.

BARLEY CHANGES.

Very nearly half of the surface withdrawn from wheat cultivation has been devoted to the growth of barley. The entire area of this crop is now in the United Kingdom all but equal to that of wheat. In Scotland and in Ireland it is considerably more important. In Wales only is there any exception to the general increase of barley culture in the several divisions of the country.

The following table of ten years' barley changes possesses several interesting features:

Countries.	1870.	1879.	Increase.	Decrease.	Increase.	Decrease.
	Acres.	*Acres.*	*Acres.*	*Acres.*	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*
England	1,964,000	2,236,000	272,000	.....	13.8	.....
Wales	164,000	152,000	.....	12,000	.....	7.3
Scotland	244,000	279,000	35,000	.....	14.3	.....
Ireland	241,000	255,000	14,000	.....	5.8	.....
Isle of Man and Channel Islands	9,000	10,000	1,000	.....	11.1	.....
United Kingdom	2,622,000	2,932,000	310,000	.....	11.8	.....

Ireland here shows the least relative additions and the corn districts of England the greatest, while of the 272,000 acres of barley added in ten years to England as a whole, 130,000 acres appear in the two great counties of Lincoln and York.

OATS CHANGES.

The third of the great cereal crops occupies the largest absolute area of any. Much more than half of oats are grown in Scotland and Ireland,

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in which countries this crop occupies from 25 to 30 per cent. of the arable area, and no less than 72 to 76 per cent. of the whole surface under corn.

Oats, however, like wheat, have decreased in the ten years 1870 to 1879, chiefly in Ireland, where, as the following table will show, 330,000 acres less were grown in 1879 than in 1870. There has been 4.4 per cent. of decrease for England, while Scotland sticks, though, to its distinctive national grain, only 14,000 acres less of oats being grown there now than ten years ago.

Countries.	1870.	1879.	Decrease.	Decrease.
	Acres.	*Acres.*	*Acres.*	*Per cent.*
England	1,491,000	1,425,000	66,000	4.4
Wales	253,000	227,000	26,000	10.3
Scotland	1,019,000	1,005,000	14,000	1.4
Ireland	1,650,000	1,330,000	320,000	20.0
Isle of Man and Channel Islands	12,000	11,000	1,000	8.3
United Kingdom	4,425,000	3,998,000	427,000	9.9

CHANGES IN THE NUMBER OF LIVE STOCK.

In the United Kingdom, as a whole, there are 200,000 more horses than in 1870; 727,000 more cattle. There is a reduction of 548,000 in sheep. The course of increase has not been uniform, and, generally speaking, the decade 1870 to 1879, except in the case of horses, has witnessed a rise and then a fall in the numbers of the live stock. The horses of all sorts averaged for the first three years of this period 1,750,000, for the second three years 1,790,000, while the animal average for 1876 to 1879 has reached 1,910,000. Cattle, on the other hand, averaged, in round numbers, 9,430,000 head in the first three years, 10,200,000 in the next two years, reaching the maximum in 1874; while in the last four years the average sunk again to 9,863,000. Sheep also, which on the average of the years 1870 to 1872 were 32,480,000 in number, had multiplied to 33,770,000 during 1873 to 1876, and for the last three years they have been reduced to 32,380,000.

HORSES.

The following table gives the number of horses in Great Britain in 1870 and in 1879:

Countries.	1870.			1879.		
	Used in agriculture.	Unbroken horses or breeding mares.	Total.	Used in agriculture.	Unbroken horses or breeding mares.	Total.
England	756,000	222,000	978,000	770,000	331,000	1,101,000
Wales	71,000	45,000	116,000	73,000	63,000	136,000
Scotland	139,000	34,000	173,000	142,000	54,000	196,000
Ireland			474,000			513,000
Isle of Man and Channel Islands	7,000	3,000	10,000	7,000	2,000	9,000
United Kingdom			1,751,000			1,955,000

From the preceding table it appears that for Great Britain there are now 13 per cent. more horses than ten years ago. But while horses

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actually employed in agriculture have only increased by some 2 per cent. in this period, unbroken and young horses and breeding mares are more numerous, showing an increase of 49 per cent. in England. Scotland only, of the other divisions of Great Britain where arable land predominates in the cultivated area, approaches this percentage with an increase of 59 per cent. in its young horses and mares. No doubt this increase is due to the remunerative prices which prevailed for young horses and to the foreign demand, which has been notable.

CATTLE.

At the present time there is but little short of 10,000,000 head of cattle within the British Isles. Its distribution on the total area of the different parts of the United Kingdom is remarkable. After the Channel Islands, Ireland, it seems, bears off the palm with the highest ratio of cattle to her entire surface, the grass district of England and Wales coming next, while Scotland stands lowest in this particular, although occupying very nearly the opposite position in respect to the cattle on its cultivated area.

The subjoined table exhibits the relative head of cattle reckoned in each 100 acres both of the entire area and of the cultivated portions of each of the several sections of the country:

Countries.	1870.		1879.	
	Per 100 acres of total area.	Per 100 acres of cultivated area.	Per 100 acres of total area.	Per 100 acres of cultivated area.
England	11.5	16.0	12.7	16.9
Wales	12.8	23.7	13.6	23.3
Scotland	5.3	23.4	5.6	23.0
Ireland	18.2	24.3	19.5	26.5
Isle of Man	12.0	20.1	13.8	21.3
Jersey	38.3	58.2	38.3	56.7
Guernsey, &c	35.2	58.9	35.4	61.4
United Kingdom	11.9	20.0	12.8	21.0

An interesting feature in the increase of cattle is that, taking the ratio of the stock to the whole area, at the beginning and end of the decade, while the stock on the arable district has increased 14 per cent. per 100 acres, the increase on the grass land with all the extension of pasture effected has been but 8¾ per cent. In the western counties, in Wales and in Ireland, where permanent pasture has more rapidly increased, the growth of stock has been from 6 to 8¼ per cent. only.

The following table gives the number of cattle in 1870, 1874, and 1879:

Countries.	1870.	1874.	1879.
England	3,737,000	4,306,000	4,129,000
Wales	604,000	665,000	644,000
Scotland	1,042,000	1,155,000	1,084,000
Ireland	3,797,000	4,110,000	4,067,000
Isle of Man and Channel Islands	55,000	38,000	38,000
United Kingdom	9,235,000	10,274,000	9,962,000

SHEEP.

The diminution in the sheep stock of Great Britain is a feature pressed upon the attention in the annual returns. It must be specially noted that, while compared with 1870, there is in the aggregate but little diminution in the flocks, the falling off when 1879 is contrasted with 1874 is much more serious. The aggregate flock of the United Kingdom rose from 32,800,000 in 1870 to 34,800,000 in 1874, and dropped again to 32,200,000 last year. Over the more recent period, and for the whole country, the reduction marked is 7½ per cent. Ireland shows relatively a greater falling off than any other section of the United Kingdom, with the exception of the drop on a very much smaller scale in the flocks of the Isle of Man.

So far as England herself is concerned, it is distinctly the corn and arable districts where the greatest loss of sheep is recorded. The Welsh sheep-farmers account for 6 per cent. larger flocks than at the beginning of the decade, and the grass district of England has about one-tenth per cent. more sheep than in 1870, while the arable district has 5 per cent.

It is worthy of remark, however, that practically there are no larger flocks now in those very districts of England where the permanent culture is greater by 1,100,000 acres than it was ten years ago.

The following table shows the number of sheep in 1870, 1874, and 1879:

Countries.	1870.	1874.	1879.
England	18,940,000	19,860,000	18,446,000
Wales	2,707,000	3,065,000	2,873,000
Scotland	6,750,000	7,389,000	6,838,000
Ireland	4,334,000	4,438,000	4,018,000
Isle of Man and Channel Islands	55,000	87,000	63,000
United Kingdom	32,786,000	34,839,000	32,238,000

SIZE OF FARMS.

There is some difficulty in arriving at any approximate statement of the distribution of holdings in the United Kingdom according to their size, as the returns on this subject vary both in the time and mode of their collection. It may be said that there are two distinct sets of data, those furnished in some of the yearly agricultural returns and those tabulated by the census commissioners in their general report for 1871. The average size of an English holding, according to the census commissioners, was 152 acres; according to the agricultural returns an average holding was little more than one-third as great, or 57 acres. The entire divergence between the two sets of figures, the census and the agricultural returns, is very puzzling to any inquirer into the distribution of the land and the size of the holdings, who happens to overlook these distinctions.

However, the following table will show the approximate classification of the number and acreage of several distinctive classes of agricultural holdings in the United Kingdom. Owing to certain discrepancies, this table cannot be completed in detail, but, roughly speaking, any irregu-

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larity in the structure of the several returns and in the varying numbers accounted for in different years will not greatly affect the totals:

Number of holdings.

Extent of holdings.	England.	Wales.	Scotland.	Ireland.
Not exceeding 1 acre	67,422	1,103	1,319	51,221
1 to 5 acres	93,148	10,041	21,091	66,359
5 to 20 acres	50,895	15,390	21,511	373,782
20 to 50 acres	82,004	13,627	12,390	
50 to 100 acres	44,842	9,656	9,878	56,138
100 to 500 acres	69,695	7,749	13,790	30,347
Over 500 acres	4,334	94	817	1,552
Total	412,340	57,660	80,796	579,399

The total number of returns is that given in 1878 for Ireland, and in 1875 for the other columns. Assuming, however, that the percentage now would not materially differ from those resulting from the above table, it is interesting to note what ratio the small holdings bear to the total number of those accounted for. The following table shows this ratio:

Percentage of holdings.

Extent of holdings.	England.	Wales.	Scotland.	Ireland.
Not exceeding 1 acre	16	2	2	9
1 to 5 acres	23	17	26	11
5 to 20 acres	12	27	27	65
20 to 50 acres	20	24	15	
Total 50 acres and under	71	70	70	85
50 to 100 acres	11	17	12	10
100 to 500 acres	17	13	17	5
Over 500 acres	1	.....	1	.....
Aggregate	100	100	100	100

CHANGES IN RENT.

The following table approximately shows the amount paid for the rent of land in the different sections of the United Kingdop in 1869 and 1878, and the changes which have taken place:

Countries.	1869.	1878.	Increase.	Increase.
				Per cent.
England	$218,554,000	$235,494,000	$16,940,000	7.8
Wales	13,674,000	15,451,000	1,777,000	13.0
Scotland	35,121,000	37,325,000	2,204,000	6.3
Ireland	44,781,000	48,363,000	3,582,000	8.0
Total	312,130,000	336,633,000	24,503,000	7.9

CH. F. THIRION,
Consular Clerk.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Liverpool, January 10, 1881.

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ENGLAND'S COMMERCE.

REPORT BY CONSUL SHAW, OF MANCHESTER.

I herewith transmit a valuable *résumé* of the trade and commerce of the United Kingdom during the month of January, 1881, compiled by the commercial editor of the Manchester Guardian. It furnishes important details of the commerce of this kingdom, giving as it does the exports of the various manufactures and the countries to which they were shipped. The imports are also given, and both are compared with the trade of January, 1879 and 1880. As a clear and brief history of England's vast commerce for one month, it will be interesting and valuable to American manufacturers and business men generally. It will also give a good idea of the diversified markets receiving their supplies from the United Kingdom.

ALBERT D. SHAW, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Manchester, February 8, 1881.

RÉSUMÉ OF BRITISH TRADE FOR JANUARY, 1881, 1880, AND 1879.

[From the Manchester Guardian.]

The board of trade returns for the month ended January 31 were issued yesterday. The declared value of our exports in the month has been £17,318,911, against £16,912,858 in 1880 and £14,196,518 in 1879. The declared value of our imports in the month was £26,742,962, against £32,372,907 in 1880 and £26,367,046 in 1879.

The following figures relate to the month ended January 31:

Articles.	1879.	1880.	1881.
IMPORTS.			
Cotton.....cwt.	1,498,415	1,451,383	1,280,839
EXPORTS.			
Cotton.....cwt	170,144	170,861	121,319
Cotton yarn.....pounds	15,823,600	15,447,100	19,490,100
Cotton piece goods.....yards	277,332,700	357,208,400	411,371,100
Iron and steel.....tons	128,318	275,979	197,112
Linen yarn.....pounds	1,307,400	1,200,300	1,260,400
Linen piece goods.....yards	17,413,500	21,071,800	17,559,200
Jute manufactures.....do	10,621,200	15,966,000	14,216,700
Silk manufactures.....value	£183,831	£164,398	£185,333
British wool.....pounds	528,400	2,036,200	1,606,800
Colonial and foreign wool.....do	12,416,600	7,157,906	4,217,828
Woolen yarn.....do	2,233,400	2,302,500	1,738,600
Wool cloths.....yards	3,772,400	3,713,200	4,222,500
Worsted stuffs.....do	19,121,900	21,873,300	18,745,100
Blankets and blanketing.....do	550,500	588,400	663,100
Flannels.....do	566,500	524,800	652,500
Carpets.....do	539,500	653,800	521,700

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COTTON YARN EXPORTED.

Subjoined are the particulars of the exports of cotton yarn, distinguishing the countries to which those exports have been made, during the month of January, 1881, compared with the corresponding month in 1879 and 1880:

Countries.	1879.	1880.	1881.
	Pounds.	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*
Russia	1,016,800	1,460,800	205,900
Germany	2,277,000	1,841,600	3,243,800
Holland	2,738,300	1,846,900	2,645,500
Belgium	678,700	605,500	838,900
France	452,800	381,600	372,700
Italy	1,157,900	590,100	1,759,300
Austrian Territories	315,500	178,400	207,500
Turkey	1,744,300	588,800	1,186,900
Egypt	213,600	206,600	370,100
China and Hong-Kong	642,000	932,100	1,261,600
Japan	1,537,200	2,328,700	2,050,200
British India:			
Bombay	522,000	938,600	1,126,100
Madras	561,200	917,700	1,143,600
Bengal	595,300	1,256,800	1,364,200
Straits Settlements	174,400	203,900	250,700
Ceylon	2,000	17,800	3,500
Other countries	1,194,600	1,151,200	1,457,600
Total	15,823,600	15,447,100	19,490,100

COTTON MANUFACTURES EXPORTED.

The following were the quantities of cotton-manufactured piece-goods exported in January, compared with the corresponding month in the two preceding years:

Countries.	1879.	1880.	1881.
	Yards.	*Yards.*	*Yards.*
Germany	3,751,500	3,586,800	4,059,400
Holland	7,519,600	4,989,000	5,237,300
France	6,042,400	4,393,300	6,120,500
Portugal, Azores, and Madeira	4,828,800	5,872,900	5,727,600
Italy	6,114,200	6,072,800	8,010,900
Austrian Territories	1,657,300	672,000	532,800
Greece	2,105,500	2,563,300	3,878,700
Turkey	28,837,800	23,344,000	44,835,600
Egypt	7,442,500	10,266,300	18,225,700
West Coast of Africa	1,604,600	3,025,600	772,000
United States	6,544,700	11,139,200	7,441,100
Foreign West Indies	5,444,000	3,737,200	5,161,600
Mexico	612,100	2,559,200	2,997,200
United States of Colombia (New Granada)	3,490,400	3,297,400	2,792,900
Brazil	12,207,300	19,759,200	15,867,000
Uruguay	2,140,300	3,589,600	3,788,700
Argentine Republic	3,649,000	4,812,700	9,044,700
Chili	2,299,100	5,347,800	3,183,800
Peru	2,775,400	1,306,400	881,100
China and Hong-Kong	38,759,200	42,522,400	38,933,000
Japan	4,510,500	5,669,600	5,288,300
Java	5,164,400	7,114,500	3,903,800
Philippine Islands	2,076,100	5,032,600	5,236,400
Gibraltar	823,100	1,336,700	2,223,300
Malta	2,552,300	801,800	3,160,200
British North America	7,023,700	4,613,800	5,927,400
British West India Islands and Guiana	2,633,400	3,704,800	3,117,800
British Possessions in South Africa	2,065,200	1,956,100	1,982,500
British India:			
Bombay	25,829,100	45,350,300	50,431,900
Madras	3,800,100	5,647,700	6,758,500
Bengal	46,440,900	70,074,700	91,562,700
Straits Settlements	6,153,300	15,483,100	13,836,000
Ceylon	2,004,600	2,196,700	2,463,700
Australia	3,461,000	3,433,200	5,284,400
Other countries	14,969,300	21,835,700	22,702,600
Total unbleached or bleached	193,189,400	251,268,000	288,454,700
Total printed, dyed, or colored	83,164,000	104,986,000	120,818,500
Total mixed materials, cotton predominating	979,300	954,400	2,097,900
Total	277,332,700	357,208,400	411,371,100

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Other manufactures of cotton show as follows:

	1879.	1880.	1881.
	Value.	*Value.*	*Value.*
Lace and patent net	£127,418	£180,885	£187,999
Hosiery of all sorts	£88,664	£94,719	£84,573
Thread for sewing ..... pounds.	878,089	1,034,193	1,053,080
Other manufactures, unenumerated	£72,324	£77,074	£74,379
Total value of cotton manufactures	£4,078,946	£4,949,648	£5,704,704

COTTON IMPORTED AND EXPORTED.

The imports and exports of cotton during the month of January, 1881, as compared with those of 1879 and 1880, were as follows:

COTTON IMPORTED.

Countries.	1879.	1880.	1881.
	Cwt.	*Cwt.*	*Cwt.*
United States	1,162,264	1,189,494	841,882
Brazil	8,033	23,252	18,243
Egypt	146,728	185,786	305,786
British India	62,153	45,892	107,261
Other countries	29,237	6,959	7,667
Total	1,408,415	1,451,383	1,280,839

COTTON EXPORTED.

Russia, northern ports	26,067	19,992	14,638
Germany	23,895	29,515	24,247
Holland	16,266	16,494	23,512
Belgium	69,669	63,609	33,748
France	8,648	11,002	8,414
Other countries	25,599	30,249	16,760
Total	170,144	170,861	121,319

The following account shows the quantities and value of the principal articles of British and Irish produce and manufacture exported in the month of January, 1881, as compared with January, 1880, together with the increase or decrease per cent. on the same:

QUANTITIES.

	1881.	1880.	Per cent. in 1881.
Alkali ..... cwt.	501,003	460,889	†8.0
Beer and ale ..... barrels.	37,917	41,037	*8.2
Coal and patent fuel ..... tons.	1,299,789	1,208,487	†7.0
Cotton yarn ..... pounds.	15,447,100	19,490,100	*26.2
Cotton piece goods ..... yards.	357,208,400	411,371,100	*15.2
Iron and steel ..... tons	275,979	197,112	†28.0
Jute yarn ..... pounds.	1,330,000	1,175,300	†11.6
Jute manufactures ..... yards.	15,966,000	14,216,700	†11.0
Linen yarn ..... pounds.	1,200,300	1,260,400	*5.0
Linen piece goods ..... yards.	21,071,800	17,559,200	*16.7
Wool, sheep and lambs' ..... pounds.	2,036,200	1,606,800	†21.1
Woolen and worsted yarn ..... pounds.	2,302,500	1,738,620	†24.5
Woolen cloths ..... yards.	3,713,200	4,222,500	*13.7
Woolen blankets ..... do.	588,400	663,100	*12.7
Woolen flannels ..... do.	524,800	652,500	*24.3
Woolen carpets ..... do	653,800	521,700	†20.2
Worsted stuffs ..... do.	21,873,300	18,745,100	†14.3

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VALUES.

	1881.	1880.	Per cent. 1881.
Alkali	£180,210	£138,315	†23.3
Apparel	260,577	315,462	†21.1
Beer and ale	158,158	147,356	†6.8
Coal and patent fuel	580,010	543,210	†6.3
Cotton yarn	850,213	1,026,026	†20.7
Cotton piece goods	4,453,313	5,194,706	†16.6
Cotton, other manufactures	496,335	509,998	†2.8
Haberdashery	305,481	326,837	†7.0
Hardware and cutlery	254,616	278,120	†9.2
Iron and steel	2,094,724	1,645,280	†21.5
Jute yarn	20,834	15,049	†27.8
Jute manufactures	197,617	168,765	†14.6
Leather, unwrought and wrought	228,488	227,354	†0.5
Linen yarn	70,419	68,998	†2.0
Linen piece goods	599,678	519,817	†13.3
Machinery and mill work	535,985	654,561	†22.1
Silk, thrown, twist, and yarn	45,415	48,905	†7.7
Silk manufactures	164,398	185,333	†12.7
Wool, sheep and lambs'	131,811	104,423	†20.8
Woolen and worsted yarn	275,228	197,778	†28.1
Woolen cloths	534,493	630,667	†19.7
Woolen blankets	54,146	62,624	†15.6
Woolen flannels	24,079	30,045	†24.8
Woolen carpets	74,199	68,716	†7.4
Worsted stuffs	740,371	705,431	†4.7
All other articles	3,582,060	3,496,135	†2.4
Total declared value	16,912,858	17,318,911	†2.4

* Increase. † Decrease.

BULLION AND SPECIE.

The imports and exports of gold and silver during January have been as follows:

IMPORTS.

	1879.	1880.	1881.
Gold	£1,968,755	£226,308	£482,018
Silver	1,167,884	380,149	508,325
Total	3,136,639	606,457	990,343

EXPORTS.

	1879.	1880.	1881.
Gold	£406,592	£647,117	£1,106,906
Silver	1,451,158	765,264	944,622
Total	1,857,750	1,412,381	2,051,528

Subjoined is a classified list of the exports of such articles as are shown in the monthly trade and navigation returns from the United Kingdom to the United States of America in the month ended January 31, 1881, as compared with the corresponding month of 1879 and 1880:

		1879.	1880.	1881.
Iron:				
Pig	tons	3,261	56,570	16,054
Bar, angle, bolt, and rod	do	159	6,819	1,085
Railroad, of all sorts	do	75	15,327	7,921
Hoops, sheets, and boiler plates	do	53	4,985	220
Tin-plates	do	8,995	17,013	12,177
Cast and wrought	do	749	1,057	785
Old for remanufacture	do	186	24,972	5,534
Steel, unwrought	do	468	2,592	3,775
Lead, pig, rolled, sheet	do	.....	60	30
Tin, unwrought	cwt	668	2,711	585
Yarns:				
Jute yarn	pounds	65,100	604,800	238,400

		1879.	1880.	1881.
Textile fabrics:				
Cotton piece goods	yards	6,544,700	11,139,200	7,441,100
Jute piece goods	do.	3,452,000	10,291,000	7,018,900
Linen piece goods (except sail-cloth)	do.	10,960,100	14,939,500	10,198,500
Silk broad stuffs	do.	48,750	56,223	19,915
Woolen cloths	do.	286,900	487,200	625,500
Worsted stuffs	do.	1,816,200	3,930,700	2,157,600
Woolen carpets	do.	32,509	225,800	129,100
Miscellaneous articles:				
Alkali	cwt	278,481	341,175	267,017
Bags, empty	dozen	34,259	39,612	34,817
Beer and ale	barrels	1,358	1,832	1,483
Paper of all sorts (except hangings)	cwt.	554	646	900
Salt	tons	25,302	27,987	25,881
Spirits, British and Irish	gallons	6,472	9,103	6,254
Wool, sheep and lambs'	pounds	56,900	1,472,600	1,210,100
Articles, shown by value only:				
Apparel and slops		£4,013	£7,754	£4,809
Earthen and china ware		25,562	62,219	53,501
Haberdashery and millinery		39,201	39,588	55,627
Hardware and cutlery		29,379	39,198	42,799
Machinery of all sorts		10,973	25,664	36,751
Silk, ribbons		464	494	79
Other manufactures		1,607	2,926	9,510
Mixed with other material		4,277	4,208	9,807
Stationery		4,484	4,422	4,421

TOBACCO INDUSTRIES OF ITALY.

REPORT BY MR. WOOD, CONSULAR CLERK, AT ROME.

INTRODUCTORY.

In compliance with the instructions contained in the circular of the honorable Secretary of State, dated November 25, 1879, relative to the preparation of reports on commercial subjects, I now respectfully submit herewith an account of tobacco industries in Italy.

I have made tobacco the subject of my report, not only in consideration of its importance in our trade, but also to give a trustworthy analysis of its industries for the information of the government, if needed, in any steps it may deem expedient to take with Italy, in consequence of the joint resolution, approved by the Senate and the House of Representatives, June 9 last, relative to "negotiations to be opened with certain foreign governments for the importation of tobacco into their dominions."

Believing that much of my information has not yet been given in any single work, even in this country, I desire to call particular attention to divisions I and VI, explaining the interests of the Italian Government in tobacco as a source of revenue. The statistics are all official and trustworthy; they have been taken from the custom-house returns, from parliamentary documents, and from the reports of the monopoly company; I have carefully reviewed them, but should any discrepancies be found, they may be attributed to a confliction of the statements made by the authorities.

I take this occasion to thank the Department of State for its expressions of interest in the service of the corps of which I have the honor to be a member; by devotion to duty I trust I may in some way help to strengthen and confirm the estimates of the Department as to the usefulness of its consular clerks.

My best acknowledgments are due to Mr. J. C. Hooker, the acting

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consul-general, for every encouragement in the labor of preparing the work herewith presented.

DIVISION I.—TOBACCO MONOPOLY.

Tobacco industries in Italy constitute a monopoly belonging to the government. This monopoly was carried on directly by the government up to December 31, 1868, when it was leased to a joint stock company for a term of fifteen years, ending December 31, 1883.

On the 25th of July, 1868, Count Cambray Digny, minister of finance, concluded a contract with this company in the name of the Italian Government, the object of which, according to the report preceding the bill presented to Parliament, was stated to be the introduction of important reforms in the tobacco service, as well as to incorporate therein the stimulus of private interests, and also the obtaining of a loan to provide for the most urgent requirements of the treasury. This contract was approved by law August 24, 1868, and by virtue of the same, in consideration of a certain fixed annual quota, the government agreed to allow a company of Italian and foreign capitalists to carry on the monopoly of tobacco throughout the then Kingdom of Italy (the island of Sicily excepted) for the term of fifteen years, beginning with January 1, 1869. By the terms of this contract the founders of the company also agreed to loan to the government a sum in gold lire* equivalent to $36,000,000, in certain portions, within the period of eight months from the date of the royal decree approving the statutes of the company; that is, eight months from September 24, 1868.

The loan of $36,000,000 was raised on bonds which the government authorized the company to put out, and which it guaranteed. The placing of the loan was undertaken by the founders of the company, the losses and profits of the operation being entirely at their charge. The company was simply bound to make the bonds. These bonds bear interest at 6 per cent. per annum, and must be reimbursed to the holders by the time of the expiration of the contract between the government and the company. Sums necessary for paying the interest on the bonds and providing for their extinction are annually deducted from the fixed quota which is paid to the government by the company.

In the contract of 1868 the price paid for the monopoly was distributed over four terms, the first of which was of two years, the second and third of four years each, and the fourth of five years.

The fixed annual quota for the first term was established at the amount represented by the net revenue derived by the government from its direct monopoly service in 1868. The quota for the second term was established at amounts equally representing the average net revenue derived during the first term; the net revenue of the second term served as a basis for fixing the quota for the third term; and in like manner the net revenue of the third term was to serve as a basis for fixing the quota for the fourth term. So that, with the lapse of each term, the average net revenue derived by the company, after deducting the annual quotas, was to be consolidated in favor of the government and for its sole benefit.

According to the terms of the contract, the fixed annual quota guaranteed to be paid to the government for the first term (1869–1870) was $13,378,962, for the second term (1871–1874) $14,458,606, and for the third term (1875–1878) $15,896,978; but in consequence of a special

* The average premium on gold in 1868 was 9.82; the maximum, 15.15; and the minimum, 5.20.

agreement, of which I shall speak later on, the terms of this contract were somewhat modified as to the establishment of the annual quota for the fourth term (1879–1883). This was afterwards fixed at $18,920,000 per annum.

In addition to these fixed annual quotas, it was stipulated that the government should have a share in the profits of the company, in a manner which I shall explain in Part VI of this report.

Thus the Italian Government disposed of its right to carry on the tobacco monopoly, but it reserved to itself the power of surveillance over the company, whose workings it constantly watches by means of a special agent, whose functions are defined in the contract.

This company, known as the *Società Annonima Italiana per la Regia Cointeressata dei Tabacchi*, has a capital stock of $10,000,000.

It must be remembered that the foregoing statement relates only to the service of the company on the peninsula and in the island of Sardinia; for it was not until the 28th of June, 1874, that an act of Parliament provided for the extension of the monopoly to the island of Sicily in 1876.

According to the contract at that time concluded with the minister of finance, Signor Minghetti, with the company, the latter agreed to carry on the tobacco monopoly also in the island of Sicily, on the same conditions fixed by the contract of July 25, 1868, for the Peninsular and Sardinian service. The fixed annual quota to be paid to the government for the Sicilian monopoly is not, however, given in absolute figures, but bears the same relation to the aggregate net revenue that the annual quota of the Peninsular and Sardinian service bears to its net revenue.

In addition to the annual quota, the government also shares in the profits of the Sicilian service. The company, moreover, bound itself to invest $1,000,000 of its capital stock in carrying on the Sicilian service; $600,000 of this sum to be furnished by the Peninsular stockholders, and the remaining $400,000 to be taken up by Sicilian subscription. The Sicilians only subscribed for $102,000, so that $898,000 were eventually thus invested by the Peninsular stockholders.

DIVISION II.—TOBACCO CULTURE; REGULATIONS THEREFOR.

While the manufacture of tobacco is exclusively reserved to the monopoly company, its cultivation by private persons is allowed within certain limits and on certain conditions fixed by special regulations.

Up to the end of 1879, the raising of tobacco was only permitted in the provinces of Ancona, Perugia, Rome, Benevento, Salerno, and Lecce, and in the islands of Sicily and Sardinia. A royal decree of October 27, 1879, extends this permission to the whole kingdom, and also provides new regulations for its culture, which may be engaged in for three purposes, viz: for exportation, for experimental purposes, and for the supplies of the tobacco service. The first two classes are allowed in any part of the kingdom, on the payment of the cost of inspection by the proper agents, but the last, or that destined for the supplies of the tobacco service, is limited to certain districts, specially prescribed each year by the minister of finance. These regulations were evidently intended to favor the raising of tobacco for exportation, but at the same time to limit its production for home use.

For whatever object tobacco is grown, its culture can only be engaged in by holders of a special license, renewable each year; and, as a

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rule, the plant intended for exportation is not allowed to be grown in those districts producing tobacco for home consumption.

In granting licenses for growing tobacco for home consumption, the tobacco service fixes the prices at which it engages to purchase the various kinds raised, and also defines their qualities, and the method of cultivation and treatment which it deems best calculated to insure economy and excellence for its manufactures. Under these conditions tobacco may be grown for exportation in an area of not less than 172 acres for each grant on the payment of an indemnity, either in cash or bonds, to cover expenses of inspection; since to protect the company from damages and frauds a special agency watches over each district.

The regulations for tobacco culture contain minute directions as to the methods of cultivation, gathering of the crop, its transportation, and deposit in the tobacco sheds. But, in addition to all these precautions the planter is held responsible to the company for everything that may prejudice its interests up to the very moment of exportation.

Licenses for growing tobacco for experimental purposes may be granted in any part of the kingdom, to a planter, or to a responsible company of planters, on their special request, but only for an aggregate maximum area of 3¾ acres for each grant, and also on the payment of an indemnity as above stated. These experiments may be resumed a second year, and, in exceptional cases, also a third year. As a rule, the product of experimental cultivation must be destined for exportation; if, however, this has not been done within six months from the gathering of the crop, the tobacco service has the power to take possession of it, on paying the price as determined by appraisers.

Proposals for growing tobacco for the uses of the tobacco service are issued in September of each year. According to the terms of the contract of July 25, 1868, as enacted by law of August 24 of the same year, the tobacco service, with the approval of the minister of finance, fixes from year to year, and indicates in special advertisements the districts in which the culture of tobacco will be allowed, and for each district the area, and also the kinds and qualities of seed to be planted, the number of plants of each kind to be grown, and the minimum number of plants required from each grantee; the length of time allowed for preparing and fertilizing the soil; the time of planting, transplanting, and weeding; gathering of the crop, and its final delivery at the storehouses of the company; the average number of plants to be assigned to each district for surveillance; the distance to be kept between the plants, and the maximum number of leaves to be obtained from each plant; the places of deposit for the crops, and the number of leaves necessary to make up each bundle to be deposited; the special qualities which determine the classification of the leaves, and the standard prices to be paid for each class of tobacco; also the portion of expenses of surveillance to be borne by the planter, which is not to exceed 3 cents per ara (1 ara = 0.025 acre); and finally, the special conditions that may be created by peculiar circumstances.

At the proper time indicated in the advertisements the bidders' lists are closed, and an inspection of the districts, soil, and places of deposit is then made, in order to ascertain whether they respond to the required conditions.

Requests presented to the company for licenses to grow tobacco must be sent to the respective provincial commission, since, in all those provinces where tobacco is allowed to be grown, there is a special commission composed of the prefect and four commissioners. The commissioners are chosen annually—two from the provincial council (among those

members not interested in tobacco culture), and the other two from the administration of the company, one of which latter acts as secretary to the commission. They examine the proposals of planters, as also the reports of the local agencies of the tobacco service, and decide on the admissibility of proposals, and on complaints and claims made by the planters.

When the number of plants proposed to be grown in each province exceeds the number asked for, it is the duty of the commission to reduce it in proportion among the various planters. The classifying and assorting of the various kinds of tobacco grown is done by two appraisers, one of whom is selected by the company, and the other by the planter; and in addition to the price paid for tobacco of the first class, a bounty is given for exceptionally good lots.

The agents of the tobacco service, and its guards, charged with watching the culture of tobacco, are allowed at all times to enter plantations and places of deposit for all such inspections as they may deem necessary.

DIVISION III.—PRODUCTION OF TOBACCO.

It is impossible to say what may be the results of the culture of tobacco grown for exportation, as it was only authorized, by way of experiment, by the regulations of October, 1879, and consequently has only begun during the current year; but up to the present tobacco has not figured as an article of export in Italian commerce.

Cultivation for experimental purposes, it is hoped, will aid alike in discovering the soil best suited and the method of culture best adapted for producing leaves of a sufficiently combustible nature to allow of their being exclusively used in the making of cigars, for the plant now grown does not burn freely enough for that purpose, and therefore it has been necessary to use foreign tobacco as a basis in their manufacture. It has, moreover, too often an acrid flavor, which renders it unpalatable, and in some cases almost nauseating to the consumer.

The increased importance of the use of tobacco for cigars, and the difficulty of obtaining a sweet, free-burning leaf, has seriously engaged the attention of the ministry of agriculture, industry, and commerce, which, taking advantage of special agrarian institutes, invited them to study the question, and then offer such suggestions as they might think best to remedy this defect in the native product.

From the experiments made, it would appear that this indispensable quality for tobacco for smoking is due to special conditions of climate and soil, rather than to the arts of cultivation and manipulation; and therefore those engaged in our tobacco industries will naturally be interested to know what are the qualities of the Italian soil and climate in this connection.

Prof. Gaetano Cantoni, who was invited by the ministry of agriculture, industry, and commerce to study everything relating to tobacco industries, and communicate the results of his researches, declares in a special report on the culture of tobacco that the climate and soil of Italy are favorable to the growth of a combustible leaf, and that the bad results hitherto obtained are due to the choice of districts unsuitable to its cultivation. Having observed that the tobacco that burns most freely is obtained in localities where the greatest fall of rain is distributed over the greatest number of days, and that in those places where, in addition to the greatest moisture there is the greatest elevation of temperature, not only good free-burning tobacco, but aromatic tobacco, may be obtained; having studied the various qualities of the

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leaves, and analyzed the physical and chemical qualities of the seed destined for Italian cultivation, he affirms that the Alpine basin of North Italy, both for climate and abundance of granitic sand, which is also not destitute of *umus*, is the locality in which the production of good combustible tobacco may be hoped for assoon as the method of cultivation is improved.

He expresses surprise that the Italian tobacco service has not yet learned that all those tertiary soils of the Apennines, where considerable quantities of tobacco are now grown, even if well adapted to the production of a strong leaf for snuff, are, however, less adapted to light tobacco for smoking.

The climate, also, being too dry, the conclusion at which he arrives would seem possible, considering that the valley of the Brenta, that is, the district possessing the natural conditions which he considers indispensable for this purpose, now grows a tolerably free-burning leaf, in spite of the bad system of culture.

From a document presented to Parliament by Signor Sella, minister of finance in 1871, I take the following figures, giving the results of the tobacco culture in those provinces subject to the government monopoly, from 1862 to 1868. (Rome and Sicily, of course, are not included.)

Years.	Quantity.	Value.
	Pounds.	
1862	3,910,465	$249,008
1863	2,802,829	167,873
1864	3,035,036	194,090
1865	3,623,380	233,260
1866	4,754,341	299,345
1867	6,611,852	418,990
1868	7,801,633	473,652

The considerable increase in the years 1867 and 1868 is due to the annexation of the Venetian provinces, and therefore of the district comprised in the valley of the Brenta, just mentioned.

According to the statements of the monopoly company, the culture of tobacco licensed by the government in 1868 comprised a little over 60,300,000 plants; in 1875 it reached 108,540,000, showing an increase corresponding to about 79 per cent. I believe the figures of 1875 have never been reached since, and, indeed, in 1877, although the cultivation of 95,000,000 plants was licensed (Sicily not included), only about 74,000,000 were actually grown.

The results of tobacco culture in Italy, since the cession of the monopoly to the joint-stock company, will be found in Part IV of this report.

The native product being insufficient and not well adapted to the manufacture of cigars, Italy imports largely from foreign countries. These imports from January 1, 1871, to December 31, 1879, according to the custom-house returns, may be seen in the following table, marked A :

TABLE A.—*Tobacco imported into Italy from* 1871 *to* 1879.

Years.	Raw leaf tobacco.	Havana cigars and those made on the Havana model.	Manufactured tobacco, other than Havana cigars and those so called.	Total.
	Pounds.	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*
1871	24,239,820	72,109	178,420	24,490,349
1872	26,766,960	86,293	177,320	27,030,573
1873	29,450,300	70,118	259,600	29,780,018
1874	35,431,440	73,258	189,420	35,694,118
1875	38,810,640	21,831	428,645	39,261,116
1876	44,084,920	16,027	618,501	44,719,448
1877	40,022,620	3,861	22,717	40,049,198
1878	33,225,940	3,012	13,484	33,242,436
1879	32,346,160	2,086	12,133	32,360,379

According to this statement the imports of tobacco for the period mentioned oscillated between a maximum of 44,719,000 pounds and a minimum of 24,490,000 pounds. Classifying these imports for the years 1877, 1878, and 1879, according to the countries from which they were derived, we have the results as shown in the table marked B.

TABLE B.—*Custom-house returns of tobacco imported into Italy from* 1877 *to* 1879.

[Weight in English pounds.]

Countries.	Raw leaf.			Havana cigars, and cigars made on the Havana model.			Manufactured tobacco, other than Havana cigars and those made on the Havana model.		
	1877.	1878.	1879.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1877.	1878.	1879.
	Lbs.	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*
Austria	3,461,700	4,120,820	3,692,040	1,615	955	231	3,750	3,920	1,828
France	59,840	38,060	13,800	1,131	1,106	1,054	7,480	3,518	4,024
Germany	1,392,160	2,585,660	2,843,720	117	158	304	.....	165	.....
Great Britain	1,905,860	2,153,360	1,992,100	92	77	.....	450	427	299
Greece and Malta	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,000	405	271
Russia	.....	.....	127,600	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Switzerland	.....	.....	.....	642	588	253	3,750	2,825	2,026
Spain	.....	.....	.....	77	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Turkey	34,760	141,900	.....	77	.....	.....	4,417	952	1,223
Egypt	.....	.....	.....	48	.....	.....	.....	275	1,888
Tunis and Tripoli	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,350	997	574
China and Japan	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	70	.....	.....	.....
United States	14,518,680	19,446,900	23,676,840	.....	.....	68	.....	.....	.....
Other American countries	18,649,620	4,739,240	.....	62	.....	174	220	.....	.....
	40,022,620	33,225,940	32,346,160	3,861	3,012	2,086	22,717	13,484	12,133

This table shows that the United States occupy the first place among the nations of the world sending supplies of raw tobacco to Italy. Our statistics give an exportation of raw tobacco to Italy, during the fiscal year 1877–'78, amounting to 25,665,129 pounds, valued at $2,239,943, and 26,967,570 pounds, worth $2,125,486, for the fiscal year 1878–'79. The figures given in these different statements are, however, not precisely comparable, the periods of time not being the same, and thus there may be some discrepancy between the quantity Italy admits

having received and that which the United States declare to have furnished her. Such discrepancies of figures are found in all commercial statistics, and have no real importance. It is sufficient to have shown the eminent post occupied by the United States in the tobacco trade with Italy.

[NOTE BY DEPARTMENT.—This difference is caused by indirect shipments and especially by shipments per foreign steamship lines in the absence of American ships plying directly to ports or countries importing our staples. Our tobacco and other products frequently receive a foreign "brand" before reaching the place of destination. See under "Brands" in No. 4.]

I need hardly note that the monopoly entirely excludes trade in tobacco by private persons,* and that most rigorous regulations are in force here for the protection of the tobacco service against the introduction and smuggling of the foreign product; and save in cases of *force majeur*, legally justified, vessels from foreign countries laden entirely or in part with tobacco can only enter the ports of Ancona, Bari, Brindisi, Genoa, Leghorn, Naples, and Venice, and this only for custom-house purposes. Tobacco *in transitu* must be accompanied by a special permit of the collector of the district in which there is a competent custom house, and pecial custom-houses only are authorized to allow its exportation.

Minute regulations, which need not be reproduced here, govern the movement of tobacco from one point to another within the kingdom as well as that *in transitu*.

DIVISION IV.—MANUFACTURE OF TOBACCO.

The monopoly company has its own tobacco factories on the Peninsula at Bologna, Chiaravalle, Florence, Lecce, Lucca, Milan, Modena, Naples, Parma, Rome, Sestri, Turin, and Venice; in Sardinia at Cagliari, and in Sicily at Catania, Messina, and Palermo, being in all seventeen.†

These establishments have a motive force of 479 horse-power (166 steam, and 213 water-power), and give employment to about 2,000 men and 13,700 women.

During the year 1879 the factories in the Peninsula and that in the island of Sardinia worked up 38,404,515 pounds of raw tobacco, which produced 34,587,714 pounds of manufactures.

The following figures give the statistics of tobacco manufactures in the Peninsular factories and in that of Sardinia for the entire period in which the tobacco service has been carried on by the monopoly company. These manufactures are divided into three classes only, pulver-

* The company having succeeded to the rights of the government, of course it pays no duties on its imports of tobacco. A quantity of ordinary manufactured tobacco, equal to nine pounds only, may be imported by a private person on receiving a special authorization from the tobacco service. The quantity of fine manufactured Havana tobacco and the like that may be thus imported is not actually limited, but it will only be allowed in very small quantities, and in both cases the tobacco service must be satisfied that it is intended for personal use. Raw tobacco cannot be imported in any quantity, however small. The duty on ordinary manufactured tobacco is $4 for each 2¼ pounds, and on fine tobacco $6 for each 2¼ pounds. The average amount of duties collected on these imports of tobacco by private persons amounts to about $100,000 per annum, which sum the government hands over to the company.—C. M. W.

†Since the above was written a disastrous fire at Naples on November 30, 1880, destroyed that factory, together with a quantity of raw and partially manufactured tobacco valued at $400,000.—C. M. W.

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ized tobacco or snuff, smoking tobacco, and cigars; no cigarettes and plug or chewing tobacco have yet been made.

Years.	Pulverized, or snuff.	Fine-cut for smoking.	Cigars.	Total.
	Pounds.	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*
1869	6, 886, 000	16, 025, 000	7, 578, 000	30, 489, 000
1870	6, 894, 000	16, 854, 000	8, 770, 000	32, 518, 000
1871	7, 415, 000	16, 699, 000	10, 605, 000	34, 719, 000
1872	7, 655, 000	17, 930, 000	11, 962, 000	37, 547, 000
1873	7, 705, 000	17, 459, 000	12, 398, 000	37, 562, 000
1874	7, 924, 000	18, 472, 000	12, 810, 000	39, 206, 000
1875	7, 384, 000	15, 556, 000	13, 558, 000	36, 498, 000
1876	7, 723, 000	15, 414, 000	16, 952, 000	40, 089, 000
1877	7, 614, 000	15, 865, 000	17, 214, 000	40, 693, 000
1878	7, 425, 000	13, 898, 000	15, 388, 000	36, 711, 000
1879	7, 460, 000	13, 667, 000	13, 460, 000	34, 587, 000

Considering that from 1868 to 1879 the population of that portion of the Italian Kingdom comprised in the Peninsular and Sardinian monopoly rose from 23,000,000 to 25,500,000, the foregoing figures cannot fail to create surprise; in fact, the progression up to 1877 is too slight, and is followed by a decided diminution in the succeeding years, the last of which may be explained in part by an increase in the scale of prices at which tobacco is sold.

Having thus indicated the quantity and kinds of manufactures in the Peninsular and in Sardinia, it will be of interest to examine the figures showing the quantity, quality, and cost of the raw tobacco from which they were made. I limit myself to giving the countries from which it came, without specifying the various names under which the raw leaf is known in commerce. The following table, marked C, gives these statistics for the five years from 1875 to 1879, inclusive:

TABLE C.—*Raw tobacco bought by the monopoly company from* 1875 *to* 1879.

	Native Italian tobacco.		Foreign tobacco bought by the monopoly company.					
	Quantity taken from, and amount paid to, cultivator.		American and Indian leaf.		European leaf.		Total of American, Indian, and European leaf.	
Years.	Pounds.	Dolls.	Pounds.	Dollars.	Pounds.	Dollars.	Pounds.	Dollars.
1875	9, 704, 233	521, 674	34, 775, 440	5, 070, 267	7, 890, 502	1, 007, 666	42, 665, 942	6, 077, 933
1876	8, 884, 137	483, 045	34, 070, 417	4, 316, 424	6, 354, 647	633, 837	40, 425, 064	4, 950, 261
1877	12, 079, 903	632, 075	33, 872, 953	4, 510, 224	6, 805, 817	570, 370	40, 678, 770	5, 080, 594
1878	10, 291, 774	556, 545	30, 375, 873	3, 618, 389	2, 811, 508	294, 494	33, 187, 381	3, 912, 883
1879	9, 579, 031	502, 952	21, 687, 734	1, 994, 143	4, 621, 516	396, 720	26, 309, 250	2, 390, 863
Annual average for the five years	10, 107, 815	539, 258	30, 956, 484	3, 901, 889	5, 696, 798	580, 618	36, 653, 282	4, 482, 507

Taking the annual average for these five years as a basis of comparison, it appears that the Italian leaf represents a little more than one-fourth of the quantity of raw tobacco purchased by the company for its manufacture, and also that the relation of the American leaf to the European leaf is as 30.9 to 5.7, which shows the importance of American raw tobacco in the manufactures of the Italian monopoly company.

In order to give an exact idea of the character of foreign raw tobacco used by the company I give in detail in table marked D the various kinds bought abroad in 1879. These figures will in some way complete those already presented. There are, however, some discrepancies in these quantities and those relating to the same year in table C; but as both statements are taken from official statistics, the discrepancy is supposed to arise from a typographical error.

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TABLE D.—*Character of, and price paid for, tobacco bought abroad by the monopoly company in 1879.*

Countries.	Description.	Quantity.	Value.
AMERICA.		*Pounds.*	
United States	Virginia leaf	2,961,732	$359,425
	Kentucky leaf	16,944,769	1,446,031
	Maryland leaf	221,405	40,256
	Ohio leaf	416,501	30,338
	Seed leaf	187,437	47,889
Island of San Domingo	San Domingo leaf	125,622	15,803
Brazil	Brazilian leaf	226,168	34,893
Cuba	Havana leaf	178	121
Other American countries	Miscellaneous leaf	6,459	395
		21,090,271	1,975,151
EUROPEAN.			
Austria-Hungary	Zegedin leaf	3,882,175	287,013
Turkey in Europe	Drama leaf	350,031	48,056
	Kubeck leaf	9,908	14,069
	Kir leaf	7,759	5,467
	Bafra leaf	295	19
Holland	Dutch leaf	230,577	35,018
Russia	Russian leaf	129,767	7,078
		4,610,512	396,720
EAST INDIAN.			
British East Indies	Indian leaf	423,341	18,992
Total of all kinds		26,124,124	2,390,863

This table shows that our Kentucky leaf ranks first in importance; the Virginia leaf comes next, and then follows the tobacco of other countries.

In addition to the quantities of raw tobacco bought by the company already indicated account must be taken of those which the Peninsular and Sardinian service procured from the separate Sicilian service, as also of the quantities confiscated from contrabandists and smugglers, which thus of right become the property of the company.

During the year 1879 the Sicilian service sent 1,776,005 pounds of raw tobacco to the Peninsular service, worth $163,251; during the same period the Sicilian service received 2,216,617 pounds of raw tobacco from the Peninsular service of an aggregate value of $186,368. Of course, in these figures are comprised both native and foreign tobacco without distinction.

In 1879 22,000 pounds of contraband raw tobacco were seized and confiscated for the use of the Peninsular and Sardinian service; during the same year manufactured tobacco, so seized and confiscated, amounted to about 150,000 pounds.

The quantity and value of manufactured tobacco imported into Italy by the Peninsular branch of the company for the five years ending December 31, 1879, was as follows:

Years.	Quantity.	Value.
	Pounds.	
1875	212,370	$81,413
1876	308,581	103,900
1877	345,492	108,265
1878	251,383	117,817
1879	256,375	101,309
Annual average for the five years	249,855	114,541

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The various kinds of manufactured tobacco imported by the company in the latter year were as follows:

	Quantity.	Value.
	Pounds.	
Cigarettes	246,598	$72,799
Cigars	5,377	26,018
Superfine smoking tobacco	4,400	2,492
Total	256,375	101,309

As will be seen hereafter in speaking of the revenue derived by the government from the Sicilian monopoly, the contract of January 26, 1875, contemplated two different terms for the working of that service, fixing rules for each according to the different relations that were to be established between the company and the government.

In order to render less troublesome the transition from the free exercise of tobacco industries to the monopoly system, the government desired to enforce that monopoly gradually, and by the law of June 28, 1874, fixed the distant date of July 1, 1876, for beginning the complete working thereof in Sicily; but this date was prorogued by a royal decree of March 16, 1876, to the 1st of October of the same year. In this way the object was attained of having at least one of the three factories of the Sicilian service in full operation before the manufacture and sale of tobacco by private persons was definitely prohibited.

Meanwhile, the company placed its products on sale in competition with those of the free industry. These sales rapidly increased in importance; from 66,288 pounds in 1874, they rose to 313,606 pounds in the following year, and to 640,581 pounds in 1876.

Tobacco culture in Sicily in 1876 furnished the three factories of the island with 832,693 pounds of leaf tobacco, worth $59,707; 2,986,082 pounds, worth $181,851, in 1877; 1,455,192 pounds, worth $80,333, in 1878; and 1,732,614 pounds, worth $102,761, in 1879.

The Sicilian factories do not receive their supplies of foreign tobacco directly from abroad. The published statements of the monopoly company give the following figures relative to the supplies of tobacco of all kinds furnished to the Sicilian service by the peninsular and Sardinian service in 1877, 1878, and 1879.

Description.	1877.		1878.		1879.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Pounds.		*Pounds.*		*Pounds.*	
Italian tobacco, raw			417,364	$36,906	1,513,736	$105,514
Foreign tobacco, raw	6,820,532	$880,283	1,957,613	219,906	691,880	80,872
Italian tobacco, manufactured	1,713,653	460,903	672,276	190,869	674,762	205,201
Foreign tobacco, manufactured	41,523	21,301	14,370	6,329	21,507	8,114
Tobacco in course of manufacture	214,557	20,126	308,070	28,308	364,991	30,036
Total	8,790,265	1,382,613	3,369,693	482,318	3,266,876	429,737

The supplies sent to the Sicilian branch of the service by the Peninsular service are not all disposed of in the island; a portion of the raw product and that in course of manufacture returns to the Peninsula after having been worked over with the Sicilian leaf; another portion may be drawn upon for Peninsular and Sardinian use in case of too heavy accu-

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mulations there. Without entering into lengthy details it may be said that during the three years mentioned, 1877, 1878, and 1879, the Peninsular and Sardinian service received from the Sicilian service the following quantities of tobacco, including raw, manufactured, and partially manufactured:

Years.	Quantity.	Value.
	Pounds.	
1877	113,357	$35,796
1878	2,745,094	508,395
1879	3,750,129	704,238

Thus the aggregate movement of tobacco from the peninsula and Sardinia to Sicily during these three years amounted to 15,426,834 pounds, worth $2,294,668, and the aggregate movement of the same during the same period from Sicily to the peninsula and Sardinia amounted to 6,608,580 pounds, worth $1,308,429.

Many economists complain of the little use made of the native leaf by the company in its manufactures, and cite the example of France and Austria-Hungary, whose manufactures absorb a large proportion of the native leaf. According to the reports of the monopoly company, this is owing to the fact that in those countries tobacco consumers are accustomed to manufactures the basis of which does not, as in Italy, consist of American tobacco, and also that the proportion of cigars used to smoking tobacco is very different from that existing in Italy. While here 40 per cent. of all kinds used is smoking tobacco and 40 per cent. cigars, in France the proportion reaches 65 per cent. for smoking tobacco and falls to 10 per cent. for cigars.

The Italian tobacco service is endeavoring more and more to substitute the native for the imported product. In 1869, exception being made for pulverized tobacco, or snuff, for which the native plant is said to be well adapted, the Italian leaf was used for making tobacco for smoking in the single factory at Naples; it is now used for this purpose in all the factories of the kingdom. Italian tobacco is also used in making the lowest brands of cigars. By the introduction of a new cigar into the market now sold at a price equal to one cent each, the company while wishing to furnish the lower classes with a cheap article, aimed at progress in the substitution of native for foreign tobacco, without injuring its manufactures of higher grades. Their last report states that, by the aid of special machinery working in twelve of their factories, 70 per cent. of the native leaf is used in making these cigars, and that the quantity used for that purpose is about 352,000 pounds per month.

All the efforts and experiments now being made for the improvement of the tobacco plant are for the sole purpose of rendering Italy less tributary to foreign countries; and it is certain that if the experimental cultivation authorized by the regulations of which I have spoken should demonstrate the possibility of growing, in Italy, a light, sweet, free-burning leaf, adapted to the making of cigars, the importation from abroad will necessarily fall off. But even in case of success, those European countries which now furnish Italy with a portion of their products would probably be the first to feel the effects of this change.

In 1879 the monopoly company made its first experiment of exporting some of its tobacco manufactures in search of new markets, as the home

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demand had somewhat diminished, owing to the increased prices before referred to.

DIVISION V.—CONSUMPTION AND SALE OF TOBACCO IN ITALY.

Some of the statistical results of the consumption of tobacco in Italy may now be examined. These figures do not, however, exactly represent the quantities actually used, but those taken from the warehouses and placed on sale. These statistics are the only ones kept; and as these quantities are delivered by the company to dealers, whose stock on hand is generally small, they may fairly be considered to show the quantity really sold and consumed.

The quantities of raw tobacco worked up, the manufactures obtained from the same, and the quantity sold by the company during the eleven years of its service are as follows:

Years.	Quantities of raw tobacco worked up.	Quantities of manufactures obtained therefrom.	Quantities of manufactured tobacco sold.
	Pounds.	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*
1869	31, 552, 778	30, 489, 433	32, 806, 640
1870	34, 061, 786	32, 519, 661	33, 248, 994
1871	36, 512, 311	34, 720, 350	34, 660, 287
1872	38, 949, 731	37, 547, 473	36, 576, 390
1873	40, 165, 633	37, 563, 335	38, 180, 883
1874	41, 637, 171	39, 205, 210	38, 716, 390
1875	38, 566, 172	36, 498, 009	37, 352, 396
1876	42, 612, 233	40, 090, 182	37, 810, 654
1877	43, 585, 775	40, 693, 495	37, 668, 475
1878	39, 962, 683	36, 710, 828	32, 252, 609
1879	38, 404, 516	34, 586, 715	33, 243, 243

The various kinds of manufactured tobacco sold by the company during the same period may be classified as follows:

Years.	Pulverized or snuff.	Fine cut for smoking.	Cigars.
	Pounds.	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*
1869	7, 056, 474	16, 594, 622	9, 165, 544
1870	7, 091, 898	17, 760, 471	9, 396, 625
1871	7, 363, 048	16, 809, 311	10, 487, 928
1872	7, 697, 668	17, 625, 397	11, 253, 326
1873	7, 897, 597	18, 237, 971	12, 045, 315
1874	7, 825, 127	18, 226, 575	12, 664, 687
1875	7, 535, 882	15, 406, 488	14, 410, 026
1876	7, 655, 674	15, 405, 447	14, 749, 533
1877	7, 447, 992	15, 506, 678	14, 713, 805
1878	7, 148, 552	13, 972, 196	11, 131, 861
1879	7, 384, 901	13, 715, 150	12, 143, 193

While the use of snuff has remained relatively stationary, the use of fine-cut tobacco for smoking has diminished sensibly, and that of cigars has increased. In fact, in the aggregate quantity of tobacco used in 1869, tobacco for smoking represented 50.60 per cent., and in 1879 41.25

per cent. only; on the other hand, the use of cigars increased from 28 to 36.53 per cent. This increase is of no small importance to the country, considering that cigars require a good, free-burning leaf, which quality, as I have said, is lacking in the native plant now grown.

For the five years ending December 31, 1879, the quantity and value of tobacco manufactured and used in Italy, distinguished from that used but manufactured abroad, was as follows:

Years.	Italian tobacco.		Foreign tobacco.		Total of Italian and foreign.	
	Quantities.	Value.	Quantities.	Value.	Quantities.	Value.
	Pounds.		*Pounds.*		*Pounds.*	
1875	37,097,674	$25,555,721	254,728	$290,199	37,352,397	$25,845,921
1876	37,510,108	26,255,908	300,546	310,926	37,810,654	26,566,834
1877	37,318,796	26,404,397	349,679	334,892	37,668,475	26,739,289
1878	32,017,744	26,440,452	234,863	221,288	32,252,607	26,661,739
1879	32,994,491	27,283,518	248,752	238,151	33,243,243	27,521,670

The consumption of foreign manufactured tobacco is of very limited importance, and consists only of cigarettes, superfine tobacco for smoking, and Havana cigars, or those made on the Havana model. The cigarettes imported are exclusively those made by the La Ferme Company, at Dresden, in Saxony. It must be borne in mind that under the head of "Italian tobacco," in the preceding statement, is not alone comprised the native product, but also all raw tobacco imported and worked up with it in Italy for sale.

Having hitherto produced statements relating to the peninsular and Sardinian tobacco service, I shall now give some relating to the Sicilian service, as brought into complete operation on January 1, 1877, first indicating the quantities of tobacco manufactures taken from the warehouses and placed on sale in Sicily from 1877 to 1879.

Years.	Snuff.	Fine-cut for smoking.	Cigars.
	Pounds.	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*
1877	358,839	568,742	1,080,552
1878	324,119	584,753	750,196
1879	382,558	612,572	790,403

Then the price and quantity of manufactured tobacco sold there by the Sicilian service, distinguishing that manufactured in Italy from that manufactured abroad.

Years.	Italian.		Foreign.		Total of Italian and foreign.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Pounds.		*Pounds.*		*Pounds.*	
1877	1,879,315	$1,540,526	29,880	$23,634	1,909,195	$1,564,160
1878	1,642,472	1,580,915	16,601	13,958	1,659,073	1,594,873
1879	1,764,217	1,724,449	21,316	17,186	1,785,535	1,741,635

In examining the figures relating to the manufacture of tobacco in Italy, I have already stated that its development had been very slight, and that during the past few years it had suffered a sensible diminution.

The figures relating to the consumption of tobacco confirm this statement; the revenue from this source, however, has not been diminished, but, on the contrary, has notably increased. Of course this apparent discrepancy is owing to a change in the scale of prices.

In the month of July, 1875, a law imposed a tax equal to 20 cents per 2⅕ pounds on four qualities of manufactured tobacco, for the exclusive benefit of the government. With this law, and with the considerable modification in the price-lists, introduced by royal decrees of February 2, 1878, and of the law of April 10, 1879, the prices of manufactured tobacco were increased about 24 per cent.

In regard to the effect of the new prices thus established, on the amount of sales, it will not be without interest to cite the estimates and opinions of the monopoly company.

> Certainly a diminution representing 15 per cent. of the quantity used is a very great one, and taking into account the revenue derived from sales, it would almost show that the country had not wished to pay out the additional amount indicated by the new price lists, thus reducing the use by about as much as the amount of the theoretical increase of the prices of sale. However, to mitigate the apprehensions that might be created by an abstract examination of the figures, on the effect of the increased tax, it is well to note, that while for the first two months during which the new price-lists were enforced the diminution of sales was about 20 per cent., it afterwards fell to 14 per cent. during the last two months of the year, and to below 10 per cent. for the early part of 1879.

I may add that during the summer months of 1879, this diminution was further reduced, and that probably for the current year the quantity used will rise again to its original level. All taxes on articles of consumption produce similar effects, and these articles, under the influence of new imposts, pass through the same phases. The present case being that of an article which is not one of necessity, its use is for that reason more influenced by the economical condition of the population. During the past few years Italy has been suffering from an economical crisis which has been felt by all classes. I state this because it seems to have some importance in explaining the figures representing the use of tobacco in the kingdom.

The distribution of the consumption of tobacco in the Italian kingdom may be seen from the following figures, giving the quantity and value sold in 1879 in each geographical group of provinces, and also the use per capita.

Provinces.	Quantity of all kinds used.	Value.	Average for each inhabitant.	
			Quantity.	Value.
	Pounds.		*Lbs. Oz.*	
I. Piedmont and Liguria	6,157,991	$4,864,182	1.643	$1 29.9
II. Lombardy	4,401,826	3,729,585	1.386	1 17.6
III. Venetia	5,143,830	3,701,282	1.753	1 26.2
IV. Marches and Emilia	5,039,996	3,687,707	1.663	1 21.7
V. Tuscany and Umbria	3,802,301	3,552,481	1.412	1 31.9
VI. Rome	1,384,562	1,411,900	1.654	1 68.7
VII. Neapolitan Provinces	6,550,973	5,914,155	.911	82.3
VIII. Sardinia	761,761	660,376	1.197	1 03.7
IX. Sicily	1,785,535	1,741,635	.691	67.4

From these figures it appears that the use of tobacco is greater in Rome, Tuscany and Umbria, Piedmont and Liguria, and Venetia, and least in the Neapolitan provinces and in Sicily.

Examining the sales of tobacco, per capita, in each separate province, a singular fact appears: that in those provinces in which tobacco cul-

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ture is allowed the quantity and value sold is very much less than the average of the same in those provinces of the group in which it is not allowed. This fact indirectly proves that the tobacco service, in spite of all the vigilance exercised by the inspectors, is subject to frauds of some importance.

For the sale of manufactured tobacco are established warehouses of deposit, warehouses of sale, and wholesale and retail shops. The factories send their products direct to the warehouses of deposit which supply the warehouses of sale and wholesale shops of their respective districts. The warehouses of sale also furnish tobacco to the retailers of their respective neighborhoods, and the same is done by the wholesale shops. There must be one retail shop in every commune or borough of at least 500 inhabitants; in the cities and larger centers of population the number is proportioned to the needs of the inhabitants, being nearly on an average of one shop for every 2,000 inhabitants. There are two classes of retail-shops. The first consists of those whose gross income exceeds $200 per year, and the second of those having a gross income of not over $200 per year.

Licenses for keeping shops of the first class are sold at auction, and on the payment of an annual quota; those of the second are given gratuitously to a special class of persons, such as soldiers and employés who have completed their term of service and to the widow of the same.

The number of warehouses of sale, wholesale and retail shops, and the amount of the annual quota received by the tobacco service for the concession of the right of sale in these shops in 1879 is indicated in the following statement:

Provinces.	Total number of shops.		Number of shops paying a quota for right of sale.	Net quota received by the company from these shops.
	Warehouses and wholesale.	Retail.		
I. Piedmont and Liguria	70	2,990	460	$74,833
II. Lombardy	60	2,622	249	17,918
III. Venetia	81	3,283	299	24,783
IV. Marches and Emilia	69	3,126	177	13,878
V. Tuscany and Umbria	40	3,194	135	12,943
VI. Rome	16	649	14	1,814
VII. Neapolitan Provinces	134	5,363	229	17,088
VIII. Sardinia	23	477	47	5,229
Total	493	22,754	1,610	168,486

The figures relating to the Sicilian service are lacking to complete this statement. In the other parts of the kingdom, at the end of 1879, there were 493 warehouses and wholesale shops, which furnished tobacco to 22,754 retail shops; of the latter only 1,610 paid an annual quota to the company, valued at an aggregate of $168,486.

The various kinds and qualities of tobacco used and their prices will be seen in the following appendix. In connection with this it will be useful to remember that only in April, 1862, the minister of finance, Signor Sella, obtained the sanction of Parliament for uniform tobacco price-lists for the entire kingdom, assimilating the various kinds and qualities manufactured in the various provinces.

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According to the price-lists now in force these qualities are 38 for pulverized or snuff, 10 for smoking, and 22 for cigars—that is, 70 qualities of native manufactures. To these must be added 18 qualities of foreign manufactured tobacco, including smoking tobacco, cigars, and cigarettes.

DIVISION VI.—REVENUE DERIVED FROM THE TOBACCO MONOPOLY.

What revenue does the Italian Government derive from the monopoly of tobacco?

From the formation of the kingdom up to the time the monopoly was leased to the company, of which I have spoken, the annual net revenue of the government from this source was as follows:

1861	$7,384,648
1862	6,798,473
1863	8,256,219
1864	9,106,947
1865	9,837,956
1866	11,399,792
1867	12,402,777
1868	14,102,728

The considerable increase in 1867 and 1868, and in a portion of 1866, was owing to the annexation of the Venetian provinces. In these figures Sicily is not included, the monopoly not being enforced there till 1876.

The results for the eleven years immediately following the granting of this monopoly to the company (1869, 1879) are indicated in the following statement, Sicily not being included:

Years.	Gross receipts.	Expenses.	Net receipts.	Profits.			
				Of the company.	Of the government.		
					Fixed annual quota.	Extra share in profits.	Surtax.
1869	$20,088,630	$5,883,302	$14,205,328	$495,820	$13,378,962	$330,546	.....
1870	20,179,036	6,399,964	13,779,072	240,066	13,378,962	160,044	.....
1871	21,174,960	6,207,090	14,967,870	305,558	14,458,606	203,706	.....
1872	22,524,440	6,711,402	15,813,038	812,659	14,458,606	541,772	.....
1873	23,559,636	7,187,950	16,371,686	1,147,848	14,458,606	765,232	.....
1874	24,086,437	7,651,119	16,435,318	1,186,028	11,458,606	790,684	.....
1875	26,001,728	8,495,808	17,505,920	566,724	15,896,978	566,724	$475,493
1876	26,810,626	8,363,359	18,447,268	1,018,766	15,896,978	1,018,766	512,759
1877	26,975,748	8,286,314	18,689,444	1,190,402	15,896,978	1,190,402	411,660
1878	27,026,242	7,121,690	19,904,552	1,717,342	15,896,978	1,856,450	433,782
1879	27,740,304	7,240,512	20,490,392	756,896	18,920,000	822,485	.....

The figures relating to the revenue due to, and received by, the government, require some explanation. I have stated already in the first part of this report, the system established by the contract of 1868 for determining the fixed annual quota, and the extra share in the profits due to the government. Taking the results of 1868 as a basis for calculation, the fixed annual quota for the biennial 1869–1870 was established at $13,378,962. When the province of Rome was annexed, October 23, 1870, the monopoly was extended there; and this extension of the company's sphere of action led necessarily to an increase of the fixed annual quota. This increase was fixed at the proportion of one-thirtieth of the whole amount for the kingdom, the population of the province being taken as a basis for calculation. This system was also

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adopted for the term 1871–1874—that is, for the second term of the company's contract with the government; but for the succeeding terms the distinction was abolished, and the conditions of the contract were applied to the whole service as thus enlarged.

The quota paid by the company to the government for its working in the province of Rome, from October 23 to December 31, 1870, was $78,000, which sum is not included in the figures given in the preceding statement.

Concerning the share of the government in the net profits of the tobacco service, I have already stated that by virtue of the contract of 1868, for the first two terms (1869–1874), 40 per cent. of the company's annual net profits was reserved for the government, and 50 per cent. for the two succeeding terms (1875–1883.)

The product of the surtax which is given in the preceding statement relates to the years 1875–1878, and is due to the increased prices of sale on certain qualities of tobacco, as fixed by the law of July 2, 1875, already mentioned. By the terms of this law, the average of the sums inserted in the last column on the right in the preceding statement was to be added to the net product of the service, in order to determine the fixed annual quota to be paid to the government by the company for the last term—that is, for the years 1879–1883. Beginning with January 1, 1879, the surtax was considered, to all intents and purposes, as an integral part of the prices of sale.

I will add a few remarks about the regulations concerning the fixed annual quota, and the extra share in the profits due to the government for the company's last working period—that is, for the year 1879, already lapsed, and for the years 1880–1883.

On the 14th of December, 1877, a new contract was concluded with the company by Signor Depretis, minister of finance, according to which, provided the tobacco price-lists should be modified by law, the fixed annual quota for the last term was established at $18,720,000 for the Peninsular and Sardinian service. It was then estimated that the net annual product, including the fixed annual quota, would be as follows:

1878	$19,260,000
1879	20,400,000
1880	21,000,000
1881	21,540,000
1882	22,140,000
1883	22,740,000

According to the contract of 1868, the difference between the net profits of the company and the fixed annual quota was to be shared in equal parts between the government and the company. The new contract also provided that the difference between the fixed annual quota and the estimated profits should be shared in equal portions, but that on each sum exceeding those of the estimated profits should be assigned first of all to the government a portion equal to 66 per cent., and that the residuary 34 per cent. should be divided in equal parts between the government and the company.

As stated in Part V of this report, the tobacco price-lists were increased on February 2, 1878, and for parliamentary reasons, which need not be dwelt upon here, the contract of December, 1877, was so modified that the fixed annual quota, instead of $18,720,000, was changed to $18,920,000, the other parts remaining unchanged. The contract with this modification is at present in force. It was approved by the Chamber

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of Deputies March 21, 1879, after an important debate, and after voting the following order of the day:

> The chamber, in order to avoid a prorogation of the contract of 1868, invites the King's government to present, not later than 1881, the provisions it may deem most opportune for collecting the tobacco revenue, and trusting that by means of an active and efficacious vigilance may be obtained a decided improvement in the quality of the products, passes to the discussion of the law.

Concerning Sicily, I have not been able to procure the items relating to the revenue derived by the government from taxes on the production and importation of tobacco into the island before the introduction of the monopoly. As before stated, up to 1876 revenue from tobacco in Sicily was derived from taxes on its cultivation and duties on its importation, and it was only in January, 1877, that the monopoly was exercised there *completely*, as in the Peninsular provinces and in Sardinia.

The portion of revenue received there by the company and due to the government for 1876 will be classified as follows:

Taxes on sales	$1,046,713
Quota of profits on sales	305,801
Surtax	5,890
Total	1,358,404

The contract of January 26, 1875, provided that the fixed annual quota to be paid to the government for the Sicilian service was to be each year—

> liquidated in a sum bearing to the net revenue of the Sicilian service the same proportion that the fixed annual quota established for the other provinces of the kingdom bears to the net revenue obtained in the same year by the Peninsular and Sardinian service.

Of course after the contract of December 14, 1877, the regulations for determining the fixed annual quota and the division of the net profits had to conform to the new rules fixed by this contract. Thus, also, the revenue derived by the government from the Sicilian service is classified under three heads, viz: The fixed annual quota, the portion of net profits established according to the revenue estimated on the basis of the old price-lists, and the portion of the residuary profits.

The following figures show the revenue derived by the Italian Government from the Sicilian monopoly for the three years, 1877, 1878, and 1879:

Sources of revenue.	1877.	1878.	1879.
Fixed annual quota	$795,087	$806,214	$1,052,523
Surtax, law of July 2, 1875	.....	4,479	.....
50 per cent. on the estimated profits, according to the old price-lists	59,538	85,278	41,166
66 per cent. on the residuary net profits	.....	7,155	3,649
One-half of the extra profits after deducting 66 per cent	.....	1,817	940
Total	854,625	904,843	1,098,278

So that in 1878 the *net revenue* derived by the Italian Government from the monopoly of tobacco in the entire kingdom was $20,840,763, which, proportioned to the population of about 28,470,000, gives 73 cents for each inhabitant. Taking the *gross revenue* of $29,267,344, the average share of each inhabitant in the same is $1.03, one share per capita less than that of France, which is $1.78, Austria $1.45, and the United Kingdom $1.10; and greater than that of Germany, which is 8 cents,

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Spain 80 cents, and Russia 10 cents, if these figures are exact, which are taken from an authoritative Italian review,* and also if figures may be compared which represent different methods of taxation and which also refer to somewhat different periods.

It may be said in conclusion that on the expiration of the contract with the company in 1883 the government will probably resume the working of the monopoly; but owing to the great financial questions that have recently agitated or are now before the country, such as the complete abolition of the grist-tax and the resumption of specie payments, there is little prospect of its being soon, if ever, abolished.

Very respectfully,

CHARLES M. WOOD,
Consular Clerk.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Rome, December 2, 1880.

APPENDIX.

Prices of manufactured tobacco, established by law in February, 1878.

ITALIAN MANUFACTURES.

Kind and quality.	Warehouse prices to shopkeepers, per kilogram.	Shopkeepers' prices to the public.			
		Wholesale.		Retail.	
		Per kilogram.	Per one-half kilogram.	Per hectogram.	Per decagram.
SNUFF.					
Rapati:	*Lire.*	*Lire.*	*Lire.*	*Lire.*	*Lire.*
Superior quality	14.00	14.50	7.25	1.50	0.15
First quality	9.10	9.50	4.75	1.00	.10
Second quality	4.60	4.80	2.40	.50	.05
Pulverized:					
Superior quality	14.00	14.50	7.25	1.50	.15
First quality	9.10	9.50	4.75	1.00	.10
Carrada:					
Superior quality	14.00	14.50	7.25	1.50	.15
First quality	9.10	9.50	4.75	1.00	.10
Second quality	5.30	5.80	2.90	.60	.06
Zenziolio:					
Superior quality	14.00	14.50	7.25	1.50	.15
First quality	9.10	9.50	4.75	1.00	.10
Second quality	5.30	5.80	2.90	.60	.06
FOR SMOKING.					
Fine cut—Turkish:					
Seraglio	36.00	38.00	19.00	4.00	.....
Very choice	27.50	28.50	14.25	3.00	.....
Choice	18.20	19.00	9.50	2.00	.....
Superior quality	14.00	14.50	7.25	1.50	.15
First quality	9.10	9.50	4.75	1.00	.10
Second quality, common	6.20	6.70	3.25	.70	.07
Brazilian twist, sole quality	9.10	9.50	4.75	1.00	.10

* Archivio di Statistica, third year, second number, page 170.

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ITALIAN MANUFACTURES.

Kind and quality.	Warehouse prices to shopkeepers, per kilogram.	Shopkeepers' prices to the public.			
		Wholesale.		Retail.	
		Per kilogram.	Per one-half kilogram.	Per cigar and per hectogram.	Price.
CIGARS.					
Superior, foreign model:	*Lire.*	*Lire.*	*Lire.*		*Lire.*
First quality	54.00	57.00	28.50	Per cigar	0.30
Second quality	45.00	47.50	23.75	....do	.25
Third quality	36.00	38.00	19.00	....do	.20
Fourth quality	27.50	28.50	14.25	....do	.15
Choice	18.20	19.00	9.50	....do	.10
Common, at 8 centimes	14.90	15.20	7.65	....do	.08
Common, at 6 centimes	11.00	11.50	5.75	....do	.06
Ordinary, at 5 centimes	9.00	9.50	4.75	....do	.05
CIGARETTES.					
First quality	14.90	15.30	7.65	Per cigarette	.08
Second quality	11.00	11.50	5.75	....do	.06
Third quality	7.00	7.50	3.75	....do	.04

FOREIGN MANUFACTURES.

Kind and quality.	Warehouse prices to shopkeepers, per kilogram.	Shopkeepers' prices to the public.			
		Wholesale.		Retail.	
		Per kilogram.	Per one-half kilogram.	Per cigar and per hectogram.	Price.
HAVANA CIGARS.					
	Lire.	*Lire.*	*Lire.*		*L*
Superfine	270.00	285.00	142.50	Per cigar	1.50
Exceptional:					
First quality	216.00	228.00	114.00	....do	1.20
Second quality	180.00	190.00	95.00	....do	1.00
Third quality	162.00	170.00	85.50	....do	.90
Fourth quality	144.00	152.00	76.00	....do	.80
Superior:					
First quality	126.00	133.00	66.50	....do	.70
Second quality	108.00	114.00	57.00	....do	.60
Third quality	90.00	95.00	47.50	....do	.50
Fourth quality	81.00	85.00	42.50	....do	.45
Common:					
First quality	72.00	76.00	38.00	....do	.40
Second quality	63.00	66.00	33.00	....do	.35
Third quality	54.00	57.00	28.50	....do	.30
Fourth quality	45.00	47.00	23.50	....do	.25
CIGARETTES.					
Superior:					
First quality	22.00	23.00	11.50	Per cigarette	.12
Second quality	14.90	15.30	7.65	....do	.08
Third quality	11.00	11.50	5.75	....do	.06
Fine cut, for smoking, sole quality	7.00	7.50	3.75	....do	
	18.20	19.00	9.50	Per hectogram	2.00

CHARLES M. WOOD, *Consular Clerk.*

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TRADE BETWEEN RIGA AND THE UNITED STATES.

REPORT BY MR. BOMHOLDT, CONSULAR AGENT.

The imports of Riga from the United States have of late considerably increased, but, as most goods come here indirectly, the amount cannot be well given in figures. Most articles imported from the United States give great satisfaction, and I believe that there is a wide field for the introduction of American products.

Riga is the third seaport in Russia, and serving as a depot for import and export articles, supplying many towns in the interior, its importance relative to the former (import) is greatly increasing.

In 1866, Riga imported goods to the value of $3,732,166; in 1870, $11,537,511; in 1874, $15,133,178; in 1878, $16,585,071; in 1879, $21,083,379, and during the year 1880, the imports were calculated at $23,000,000.

The principal business transactions are conducted indirectly through Hamburg, Bremen, Liverpool, Hull, London, Copenhagen, Antwerp, and consequently prices are considerably increased when the goods arrive here. A better means for the sale of American goods would be to establish stores for saleable articles, so that goods could be supplied at reasonable prices, or else American exporters should have their arrangements to negotiate sales direct with the buyers. Shipments should also be direct, or on a direct bill of lading, through which forwarding expenses are reduced. The sale of the following articles could be widely extended:

Agricultural machinery, the use of which is increasing yearly; all sorts of tools and fire-arms, metal, bronze, gold and silver articles; decimal weights, clocks, and watches.

Maize.—The importation of maize has been larger in 1880 than ever before, being greatly favored by the high prices of Russian rye, the average price being $40 per ton; in 1879, only $26.

Shippers should bear in mind the necessity of direct communication so that the prices of maize could be moderate enough to compete with rye, should the prices of the latter fall again.

Apples have been imported this year from the United States, and this undertaking seems to give fair prospect of increase, though the packing has in some cases been careless, to which fault the attention of exporters must be called, as it may seriously injure a branch of trade which has been successful at its introduction.

Stationery of every description is also an article likely to succeed.

There has been considerable decrease in the sale of petroleum this year, as the Russian article has found its way to our market, but I believe that American petroleum may hold its place if shipped in superior quality and in sound barrels, so as to avoid much leakage.

In 1875 Riga imported from the United States 6,486 tons of petroleum; in 1876, 3,261 tons; in 1877, 3,225 tons; in 1878, 2,289 tons; in 1879, 2,608 tons; and in the year 1880 the import is calculated to 1,800 tons.

N. A. BOMHOLDT,
Consular Agent.

UNITED STATES CONSULAR AGENCY,
Riga, Russia, January 12, 1881.

SAVINGS BANKS IN SWEDEN.

REPORT BY CONSUL OPPENHEIM, OF GOTHENBURG.

The number of savings institutions in operation at the close of 1878 was 347, of which 336 were savings banks, properly so called, and 11 were people's banks;* the banks had 560 branch offices. The ratio of banks to population and area was for 1878 one bank to each 13,060 inhabitants and to every 494 English square miles, and for 1877 one bank to each 13,268 inhabitants and to every 507 square miles.

During the year 1878, 65,956 new accounts were opened against 79,479 in 1877, thus showing a decrease of 13,523; in 1878, 66,291 accounts were closed as against 56,105 in 1877, being an increase for the year of 10,186. At the close of 1878 the number of open accounts was 757,108 against 757,501 at the close of 1877, showing a decrease of 393.†

The proportion between the accession of new accounts and the withdrawals has of late years grown more and more unfavorable, until for the year 1878 the number of accounts closed exceeded the number of new accounts opened, as shown above. During the three years, 1871 to 1873, the banks lost 30 depositors against every 100 new accounts opened; in 1874, 34; in 1875, 51; in 1876, 55; in 1877, 71, and in 1878, 101 (nearly). As the population is known to have increased during 1878, whilst there has been a decrease in the number of depositors, the ratio between population and depositors is somewhat less favorable than at the close of 1877. In 1871 there was, roughly said, 1 depositor to every 10 inhabitants; in 1877, 1 to every 6, and in 1878 likewise 1 to every 6.

The average number of depositors per bank was, in 1871, 1,508, and increased yearly until it reached 2,241 in 1877; during 1878, however, the number of banks having increased whilst the number of depositors decreased, the average fell to 2,182.

The deposits made during 1878 amounted to 26,812,877 kroner, being 4,620,815 kroner less than during 1877, whilst the withdrawals amounted to 39,917,540 kroner, being 3,357,996 more than in 1877. The ratio between the total amount deposited and the amount withdrawn has been growing more unfavorable almost each year since 1871, in which year the withdrawals amounted only to 56 per cent. of the deposits; in 1875 the ratio was 92 per cent.; it improved in 1876 to 90 per cent.; in 1877 it rose to 116 per cent. During 1878 the amount deposited was exceeded by the amount withdrawn to the extent of 13,104,663 kroner, and the ratio of withdrawals to deposits for that year is 149 per cent.

The interest credited to depositors in 1878 amounted to 6,817,805 kroner, but as the amount withdrawn exceeded the deposits by over 13,000,000 kroner, there was a decrease in the total assets of depositors. These total assets amounted at the close of 1878 to 139,914,761 kroner, showing a decrease during the year of 6,212,604 kroner. As shown above, the withdrawals exceeded new deposits by 13,104,663 kroner, and by deducting therefrom the 6,817,805 kroner interest credited, the decrease in depositors' assets should have been 6,286,858 kroner. The dis-

* People's banks (*folkbanker*) are ordinary commercial banks, having usually a separate department for savings; these banks have no right of issue, and their customers are chiefly small tradesmen.

† There having been 66,291 accounts closed against 65,956 new accounts opened during the year, the decrease should have been 335 instead of 393; the discrepancy must probably be ascribed to errors or omissions in the returns for 1877.

crepancy of 74,254 kroner in favor of these assets arises partly from rectification of errors in the figures of the report of 1877, and from the fact that two banks then in operation were not included in that report. Leaving that discrepancy out of consideration, the increase of depositors' assets, from interest and from excess of deposits over withdrawals, shows as follows for the eighteen preceding years:

Yearly average.	Increase from interest credited.	Changes by excess: of deposits (+); of withdrawals (−).	Total changes: increase (+); decrease (−).
	Kroner.	*Kroner.*	*Kroner.*
From 1861 to 1865	1,501,074	+278,005	+1,779,079
From 1866 to 1870	2,067,532	+2,126,170	+4,193,702
From 1871 to 1875	4,552,645	+10,686,145	+15,238,790
1876	6,515,632	+3,446,225	+9,961,857
1877	6,884,810	−5,125,852	+1,758,958
1878	6,817,805	−13,104,663	−6,286,858

The number of open accounts having been, as above stated, 757,108 with deposits amounting to 139,914,761 kroner, the average sum to the credit of each depositor was 184 kroner 80 öre, showing a sensible decrease since the previous year. The average amount per depositor was, in 1871, 172 kroner 48 öre; in 1872, 180 kroner 41 öre; 1873, 188 kroner 44 öre; 1874, 193 kroner 63 öre; 1875; 192 kroner 62 öre; 1876, 196 kroner 57 öre; and in 1877, 192 kroner 91 öre.

A complete classification of depositors according to amounts standing to their credit cannot be given, as the data for several of the banks are not at hand. Such data have, however, been collected from 335 banks with 645,311 depositors and 118,708,974 kroner deposits, being 96 per cent. of the institutions and 85 per cent. of the depositors and deposits, and the following figures based upon them are thought not to vary considerably from the classification of the entire number of the banks:

	Per cent. of depositors.	Per cent. of deposits.
Under 10 kroner	27.91	0.59
From 10 to 50 kroner	25.89	3.67
From 50 to 100 kroner	12.01	4.69
From 100 to 500 kroner	24.35	31.39
From 500 to 1,000 kroner	6.10	23.16
Over 1,000 kroner	3.74	36.50
	100,00	100,00

The surplus of the savings banks amounted to 9,932,683 kroner, being an increase of 888,023 kroner over the surplus reported for 1877. Concerning the disposition to be made of the surplus of savings institutions, section 4 of the savings banks regulations of October 1, 1875, reads thus:

> All profits accruing in the management of a savings bank shall be merged into a reserve fund, to be used for necessary expenses and as a security against future losses; but whenever such reserve fund exceeds the depositors' claims and accrued interest by 10 per cent., any further excess may, unless specially forbidden by the terms of the charter, be used for purposes of public utility.

This regulation was originally only binding for banks established previous to 1875, but became binding for all after 1880. An examination of the reports of the 338 savings banks shows that only 44 of the number have a reserve equal to 10 per cent. of their deposits.* The returns for 1877 were yet less favorable, there being at that time out of 329 banks in operation only 34 with a reserve of 10 per cent. or over. It is evident that during times of monetary ease, when deposits are coming in freely and the banks find it difficult to obtain for loans a higher rate of interest than the one allowed by them upon deposits, the reserve fund cannot increase rapidly. During a tight money period, or hard times, the converse holds true; thus in 1877, and still more in 1878, whilst the deposits were shrinking the reserve increased, making the ratio of reserve to liabilities more and more favorable. Since the great influx of money into the savings banks from 1870 to 1874 the proportion of reserve to deposits for all the banks has been as follows: 1874, 5.1 per cent.; 1875, 5.3 per cent.; 1876, 5.6 per cent.; 1877, 6.3 per cent.; and 1878, 7.2 per cent. This proportion is, however, very variable among the individual banks. If they are classed in groups according to the aggregate amount of their deposits, it will appear that in a general way the reserve of the small banks compared to their liabilities is smaller than is the case with the larger institutions. The following table shows the 338 banks thus grouped:

Deposits amounting to—	Number of banks.	Number of depositors at the close of 1878.	Amount of deposits at the close of 1878.	Amount of surplus at the close of 1878.	Total assets.
			Kroner.	*Kroner.*	*Kroner.*
Under 10,000 kroner	26	2,339	138,800	6,202	146,441
10,000 to 50,000 kroner	69	18,227	1,942,067	95,085	2,043,788
50,000 to 100,000 kroner	51	23,467	3,526,398	217,588	3,772,220
100,000 to 250,000 kroner	86	91,145	13,898,150	842,974	14,850,845
250,000 to 500,000 kroner	38	78,047	13,336,996	1,029,426	14,460,513
500,000 to 1,000,000 kroner	37	136,047	25,666,763	2,040,193	27,768,388
Over 1,000,000 kroner	31	400,394	80,024,593	5,701,215	86,266,125
Total	338	749,716	138,533,767	9,932,683	149,308,320

From this table it appears that in the first group, comprising those banks whose deposits are less than 10,000 kroner each, the surplus amounts to only 4.5 per cent. of the deposits; for the next group, from 10,000 to 50,000, the ratio is 4.9 per cent.; for the group from 50,000 to 100,000, 6.2 per cent.; and for the group from 100,000 to 250,000, 6.1 per cent. The larger institutions make a more favorable showing. In the group from 250,000 to 500,000 kroner the ratio of surplus to deposits is 7.7 per cent.; in the next group, from 500,000 to 1,000,000 kroner, it is 7.9 per cent.; and for the banks whose deposits exceed 1,000,000 kroner, 7.1 per cent.

Sixty-nine of the banks, at the close of 1878, had, besides and over liabilities to depositors, debts aggregating 841,870 kroner, which amount represents the difference between the total assets on the one hand and the deposits and reserve added together on the other (see above table). This indebtedness was larger by 90,610 kroner than at the close of 1877.

The total assets of the 338 savings banks, including surplus, debts, and deposits, were, for 1876, 151,267,021 kroner; 1877, 154,415,463

* Two small savings banks that have ceased to be in active operation, but still have on hand funds previously deposited and corresponding loans, are herein included, making the whole number of banks 338.

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kroner; and for 1878, 149,308,320 kroner. These funds were at the close of each year accounted for thus:

Assets.	1876.	1877.	1878.	Amounts for 1878.
	Per cent.	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*	*Kroner.*
Cash on hand	0.89	0.79	0.78	1,168,236
In other banks	3.13	2.17	2.44	3,637,385
Buildings and furniture	0.69	0.74	0.90	1,340,570
Government and municipal securities, also mortgage societies' bonds	12.01	12.56	12.56	18,760,569
Railway bonds and stocks and similar securities	5.03	3.78	4.85	7,341,923
LOANS.				
On bond and mortgage	38.64	39.82	41.29	61,654,010
On personal security	33.36	33.72	32.15	47,997,186
Upon bullion	0.01	0.01	0.01	17,760
Upon other pledges	4.45	4.69	3.35	4,995,786
Accrued interest	1.45	1.55	1.55	2,317,431
Miscellaneous accounts	0.34	0.17	0.12	177,464
	100.00	100.00	100.00	149,308,320

The rate of interest allowed upon deposits was as follows: 4½ per cent. by 3 banks (in Stockholm and vicinity), 5 per cent. by 264, over 5 per cent. and less than 6 per cent by 64, and 6 per cent. by 7.

The expenses of management of the 338 banks for the year 1878 amounted to 939,993 kroner.

ERNEST L. OPPENHEIM,
United States Consul.

GOTHENBURG, *February* 12, 1881.

THE TARIFF OF SWEDEN.

(IN FORCE FROM JANUARY 1, 1881.)

[Translated and forwarded to the Department by Consul Oppenheim, of Gothenburg.]

Abbreviations used: n. e. s., not elsewhere specified; s. c., so called.

Articles.	Dutiable unit.	Duty.
		Kr. öre.
Absinthe; to be classed with Liqueurs.		
Accordeons; to be classed with Industrial productions not provided for.		
Ethers and ether spirituosus, s. c. Hoffman's drops	1 liter	1.20
Other ethers, composite or mixed, such as saltpeter-ether, vinegar-ether, fruit-ether, cognac, rum; arrack-essence or oil, &c	1 liter	1.20
Scrapings, waste and shavings, n. e. s		Free.
Agate, worked or rough; unset		Free.
When set in gold or silver, to be weighed with and pay same duty as the setting; when set in any other material, to be classed with Jewelry goods.		
Alabaster, worked or rough, n. e. s		Free.
Albums; etuis to be weighed along with albums	1 kilog	1.00
Albumen; classed with Chemico-technical preparations.		
Alcannæ root		Free.
Aloes; classed with Apothecaries' stock and drugs.		
Althæ root		Free.
Alum, all kinds		Free.
Ambergris		Free.
Aniline colors; classed with Chemico-technical preparations.		
Anise seed	1 kilog	.25
Crude antimony, spetsglaus, and regulus		Free.
Oranges	1 kilog	.25
Orange-peel, dried	1 kilog	.25
Apothecaries' stock and drugs; all not otherwise provided for, simple or compound, when imported by druggists and other persons authorized by the Central Health Bureau to deal in such wares; by scientific men for scientific purposes, or by manufacturers needing such materials in their industries		Free.

* The Swedish kroner = $0.26.8.

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The tariff of Sweden—Continued.

Articles.	Dutiable unit.	Duty.
Architectural works. (See Sculptures.)		*Kr. öre.*
Arrack. (See Brandy and Spirits.)		
Arsenic; when imported by druggists or under a license granted by the ministry of commerce for use in manufactures	.....	Free.
Aseptine; classed with Chemico-technical preparations.		
Asphaltum	.....	Free.
Asphaltum felt. (See Paper for sheathing.)		
Asphaltum pipes; classed with Machinery, implements, and tools not specified.		
Ashes, raw; of wood or of other vegetable origin	.....	Free.
Potash, raw, refined or calcined	.....	Free.
Boxes and caskets; classed with the material, worked, of which they are made; when composed of more than one material or of a material that is not specified in tariff	1 kilog....	.50
Orpiment; classed with Colors and dye-stuffs.		
Balsam; copaiva, Peruvian, or any other pure balsam	.....	Free.
Ribbons:		
Silk velvet and pure silk	1 kilog....	3.50
Half silk	1 kilog....	2.30
NOTE.—No allowance to be made if the silk in "half-silk" ribbons amounts to less than half the weight.		
Other kinds of ribbons, including such wherein caoutchouc, india rubber, and similar materials are used, even if silk is a component part of them	1 kilog....	1.10
NOTE.—No allowance to be made for weight of paper-wrapping or bobbins.		
Bark, all not otherwise provided for	.....	Free.
Barometers. (See Physical Instruments.)		
Bast and bast-rope	.....	Free.
Bast-matting	.....	Free.
Pitch and pitch-oil	.....	Free.
Bone and ivory (includes whalebone):		
Unworked of every kind, including therein plates for piano-forte keys, cut, split, or sawn bone, and ground bone or bone-flour	.....	Free.
Worked:		
Ivory and walrus-tusk	1 kilog....	1.20
All other kinds	1 kilog....	.35
Bone-black, bone coal, or bistre	1 kilog....	.2
Barberry root	.....	Free.
Amber (yellow):		
Raw and unworked, also when worked but unset	.....	Free.
Set in gold or silver; to be weighed with and pay same duty as the setting.		
Set in other material; to be classed with Jewelry goods.		
Jewelry goods, of any other material than gold or silver, such as bracelets, broaches, chains, crosses, rings, seals, buckles, &c.	1 kilog....	*Kr. öre.* .80
NOTE.—No deduction allowed for the weight of etuis or jewelry cases, or for pasteboard cards to which articles are fastened.		
Sculptures and architectural works, when they are works of art	.....	Free.
Other kinds of sculptures and architectural works:		
Of wood	.....	Free.
Of any other material, of which the manufactures are not specially provided for	1 kilog....	.60
Bees, in hives	.....	Free.
Printed blanks, for commercial use. (See Paper.)		
Tin-plate articles, n. e. s.:		
Unjapanned	1 kilog....	.24
Japanned	1 kilog....	.35
Blood, of animals of all kinds	.....	Free.
Leeches	.....	Free.
Flowers:		
Natural, fresh	.....	Free.
Artificial; of cloth, paper, straw, feathers, or similar substances	1 kilog	10.00
Parts of artificial flowers	1 kilog....	4.00
NOTE I.—By "Parts of artificial flowers" are only understood leaves in bundles, single ears or buds, &c., not bound together or inserted.		
NOTE II.—No deduction allowed for the weight of boxes, paper, or similar covering.		
Natural, dried	.....	Free.
Flower bulbs	.....	Free.
Lead:		
Unworked, in pigs or sheets	.....	Free.
Worked, n. e. s.:		
Unpainted and unjapanned	1 kilog....	.07
Painted or japanned	1 kilog	.35
Black lead	.....	Free.
Lead pencils, all kinds	1 kilog	.35
Sugar of lead	.....	Free.
Yarn spun of hards; hemp or linen	.....	Free.
Writing ink (no allowance made for weight of bottles or jugs)	1 kilog....	.06
Ink powders	1 kilog....	.35
Bobbins; classed with Machinery, implements, and tools not specified.		
Bookbinders' cloth or sized and embossed cotton cloth. (See Textiles.)		
Book covers, when separate	1 kilog....	.60

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The tariff of Sweden—Continued.

Articles.	Dutiable unit.	Duty.
		Kr. öre.
Letter-dies, printing-type, clichés, stereotype or electrotype plates, etched or engraved plates		Free.
Printing inks or colors, used for book or copper printing or lithography; to be classed with Colors and dye-stuffs.		
Bole clay, white and red, and terra sigillata		Free.
Cotton		Free.
Gun-cotton. (See Powder.)		
Borax and boracic acid		Free.
Bristles; classed with Hair.		
Brushes:		
Mounted in unpolished or painted wood or iron	1 kilog	.12
Mounted in polished or japanned wood	1 kilog	.24
Mounted in bone, horn, or other material	1 kilog	.45
Masons' and housepainters' brushes; to be classed with Machinery, implements, and tools not specified.		
Bouillon de poche		Free.
Letter envelopes and paper bags	1 kilog	.24
Britannia metal. (See Metals, not specified.)		
Embroideries, all kinds; complete or only begun, pay same duty as the material upon which the embroidery is applied, with the addition of 20 per cent.; but when such material is on the free list, there shall be levied a duty of 10 per cent. *ad valorem*.		
NOTE.—No deduction allowed for weight of paper to which embroideries may be fastened.		
Embroidery canvas:		
Of silk	1 kilog	3.50
Of silk, with another textile	1 kilog	2.40
Of wool	1 kilog	1.76
Of paper	1 kilog	.35
All other kinds, composed of one or several materials	1 kilog	1.20
Embroidery patterns	1 kilog	.20
Bronze; classed with Metals, not specified.		
Bronze powder, weight of paper-wrapping included	1 kilog	.35
Brunsten (manganese superoxide)		Free.
Brandy and spirits:		
In barrels or casks:		
Distilled from grain, potatoes or other roots	1 liter of spirits.*	.60
Distilled from rice: arrack	(*)	.60
Distilled from sugar: rum	(*)	.60
Distilled from grapes:		
When the brandy or spirits is manufactured in France and imported directly from that country by sea	(*)	.44
When manufactured in any other country or imported in any other way	(*)	.60
Distilled from other fruit than grapes	(*)	.60
In bottles or stone jugs:		
All kinds of brandy and spirits (regardless of percentage of alcohol)	1 liter	.88
NOTE I.—In order to be entitled to the benefit of the lower duty upon spirits of French manufacture, it is necessary to produce a certificate either of the authorities at the place of production, of the collector of the port of export, or of the Swedish consul or vice-consul at the point of shipment, stating that the spirits are made of grapes and distilled in France; such certificate, when given by a French official, must be duly attested by a Swedish consul or vice-consul.		
NOTE II.—Brandy or spirits of a different strength than the one above given is to be reduced to the normal strength of 50 per cent. in the way prescribed by regulations.		
NOTE III.—Should the spirits be found to contain sugar or other foreign substances, thereby vitiating the data of the alcoholometer, such spirits is to be classed with liqueurs.		
Bread:		
Biscuits, cakes, ginger-snaps, and similar articles; all that cannot be classed with confectionery, wrapping immediately surrounding the articles to be weighed with them	1 kilog	.10
All other kinds		Free.
Shrubs		Free.
Bottles. (See Glass.)		
Boats. (See Ships and Boats.)		
Ladies' belts, garters, woven straps for dresses and similar articles; to be classed with Suspenders.		
Berries, n. e. s. (See Fruit.)		
Berry-wine or sirups; to be classed with Wines.		
Books:		
Printed		Free.
Blank; ruled or unruled, pay same duty as paper with 20 per cent. added thereto.		
With raised letters, for the use of the blind		Free.

*Containing 50 per cent. pure alcohol at a temperature of 15° Celsius.

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The tariff of Sweden—Continued.

Articles.	Dutiable unit.	Duty.
		Kr. öre.
Beans, all kinds, n. e. s.*		Free.
Carrageen or Irish moss		Free.
Cassia fistula		Free.
Cement		Free.
French mushrooms (champignons) weight of cans included	1 kilog	.30
Chenille; classed with Military haberdashery.		
Chocolate	1 kilog	.70
Cider; classed with Wines.		
Chiccory root	1 kilog	.05
When burned or ground; classed with Roasted materials used as substitutes for coffee.		
Lemons	1 kilog	.25
Lemon juice		Free.
Salts of lemon or crystallized citric acid		Free.
Lemon peel, dried	1 kilog	.25
Cokes. (See Coal.)		
Dates	1 kilog	.50
Crucibles; classed with Machinery, implements, and tools not specified.		
Decorations, plateaux with belongings, and ornaments, n. e. s., to be subject to the same duty as the material, worked, forming their chief component part.		
Oakum and oakum-matting		Free.
Grape sugar; to be classed with raw sugar, of darker color than No. 18 Dutch standard.		
Down, of all kinds		Free.
Assafetida; classed with Apothecaries' stock.		
Enamel, in bulk		Free.
Juniper berries		Free.
Juniper jam		Free.
Essences. (See Volatile oils.)		
Paper labels and tags. (See Paper.)		
Etuis and traveling necessaries, made of materials not otherwise provided for, with or without belongings	1 kilog	.80
Ships and boats, with all appurtenances		Free.
Faïence. (See Porcelain.)		
Fennel	1 kilog	.25
Varnishes (includes boiled oils)	1 kilog	.24
NOTE.—So-called "spirit varnish," consisting of spirits with a small addition of resin or similar substances, to be classed with Brandy and spirits.		
Figs	1 kilog	.25
Files; classed with Machinery, implements, and tools not specified.		
Thimbles, of all materials except gold and silver	1 kilog	.35
Fish:		
Salted or pickled; anchovies, sardines, and tunny	1 kilog	.60
All other kinds		Free.
Whalebone. (See Bone and ivory.)		
Fish roe, salted. (See Caviar.)		
Fish skins, raw or prepared		Free.
Feathers:		
With quills yet in		Free.
With quills taken out	1 kilog	.35
Springs:		
For the use of railway rolling-stock		Free.
Hoopskirt springs, covered. (See Bonnet-frames, &c.)		
Watch-springs; classed with Watch materials.		
All other kinds of springs to be classed with manufactures of the material of which the springs consist.		
Cuttle-fish bone, *Ossa sepiæ*		Free.
Baggage and personal effects:		
Necessaries for travelling, accompanied by the owner, when the custom-house officers are satisfied that such do not exceed his needs during the voyage		Free.
Other old or previously-used articles and portable property, when after due oath given by the owner that such are intended only for personal use and not for sale, the custom house officers are satisfied that such do not exceed the owners' needs		Free.
Elderberry sirup. (See Sirups.)		
Elderberry wine. (See Wines.)		
Bacon		Free.
Spunk, prepared		Free.
Bird-lime. (See Varnishes.)		
Birds:		
Living		Free.
Slaughtered or shot; classed with Meats.		
Stuffed; classed with Natural curiosities.		
Tin and lead foil	1 kilog	.35
Molds, of all materials, when they are for use in manufactures and can be looked upon as implements or tools		Free.
Phosphor		Free.
Photographic views and portraits. (See Copper prints.)		

*See § 5, appended instructions.

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The tariff of Sweden—Continued.

Articles.	Dutiable unit.	Duty.
		Kr. öre
Fruits and berries, n. e. s.:		
Fresh		Free.
Preserved in brandy or vinegar, the weight of cans or bottles included	1 kilog.	.50
Dried	1 kilog.	.25
When preserved in sugar; classed with Jellies and confectionery.		
Seeds:		
Canary	1 kilog.	.10
All other kinds, n. e. s.		Free.
Fireworks	1 kilog.	.60
Colors and dye-stuffs:		
White lead, zinc white, and krems	1 kilog.	.07
Cochineal	1 kilog.	.80
Indigo, indigo extract, and carmine of indigo	1 kilog.	.20
NOTE.—Above-mentioned colors, when prepared in oils or otherwise, may be classed with same colors unprepared.		
All other kinds of colors and dyes, prepared or unprepared, n. e. s.		Free.
Paint-boxes, with colors and other belongings, also paints in shells, glass, &c.	1 kilog.	.80
NOTE.—No deduction to be made for the weight of boxes, shells, glass, or other belongings.		
Dyers' lichen, all kinds		Free.
Dye-woods, in logs or unrasped, all kinds; also all other unprepared plants or parts of plants used for dyeing, n. e. s.		Free.
Galanga root		Free.
Calamine (cadmia)		Free.
Gall-nuts		Free.
Window-shades, of cotton, linen, or hemp, painted or printed	1 kilog.	.94
Divi divi		Free.
Yarns:		
Cotton, simple or double, in skeins or upon bobbins:		
Uncolored	1 kilog.	.19
Colored or printed, all kinds	1 kilog.	.33
NOTE.—In case it appears doubtful if yarn entered as "Double cotton yarn" should rather not be entered as cotton thread, the importer will be required to furnish expert testimony to the effect that the article really is what it is declared to be, before being allowed the benefit of the lower duty upon "double cotton yarn."		
Mohair and woolen yarns, all kinds:		
Uncolored	1 kilog.	.24
Colored or bleached, s. c. "Gloss yarn" included	1 kilog.	.35
Linen yarn:		
Uncolored and unbleached	1 kilog.	.24
Colored or bleached	1 kilog.	.47
Jute:		
Uncolored and unbleached		Free.
Colored or bleached	1 kilog.	.12
Sail and twine yarns, of all kinds, therein including grass yarn	1 kilog.	.24
NOTE.—Yarns composed of two or more materials, subject to different rates of duty, are to pay duty as if consisting of the material which pays the highest impost, irrespective of the proportion of each component part.		
Gasometers, ad valorem	100 kroner.	5.00
Gelatine. (See Glue.)		
Gin. (See Brandy and spirits.)		
Gentian root		Free.
Guns, all kinds; weight of gun-cases and other belongings included	1 kilog.	.50
Parts of guns pay same duty as the material, worked, of which such parts are made.		
Gypsum (plaster of Paris)		Free.
Gypsum manufactures, n. e. s.		Free.
Glass:		
Pots, jars, bottles, and flasks, also apothecaries' jars with name blown in	1 kilog.	.02
Window, unpolished or dim-ground	1 kilog.	.07
For the use of chemical laboratories		Free.
For chandeliers or candelabra	1 kilog.	.12
Optical glasses, separate and unset		Free.
Glass roof-tiles		Free.
Side-lights for vessels, not under 7 millimeters thick nor over 10 square decimeters superficies, with or without frames		Free.
Plate-glass:		
Unpolished, s. c. "rough plate-glass"	1 kilog.	.7
Polished: unsilvered	1 kilog.	.12
Polished: silvered	1 kilog.	.24
Watch-glasses	1 kilog.	.24
All other kinds, including decanters and pressed or polished flagons	1 kilog.	.35
Colored glass:		
Polished or unpolished, but unset	1 kilog.	1.40
When set in gold or silver, to be weighed with and pay same duty as the setting.		
Set in any other material; to pay duty as jewelry goods.		
Glass-gall or sandiver		Free.

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The tariff of Sweden—Continued.

Articles.	Dutiable unit.	Duty.
		Kr. öre.
Glaziers' diamonds, mounted; to be classed with Machinery, implements, and tools not specified.		
Broken glass		Free.
Glauber salts. (See Salts.)		
Litharge		Free.
Globes (geographical)		Free.
Pomegranates. (See Fruits.)		
Pomegranate peel		Free.
Slate pencils, mounted or unmounted		Free.
Grits, all kinds*		Free.
Grass, n. e. s., unmanufactured		Free.
Colored, hackled, or unraveled	1 kilog	.7
Grass-mats and grass-rope		Free.
Vegetables:		
Fresh		Free.
Preserved in brandy or vinegar, the weight of jars or cans included	1 kilog	.50
Dried or salted	1 kilog	.25
Gold:		
Unworked		Free.
Worked	1 kilog	12.00
Gold leaf, genuine or imitation	1 kilog	2.40
NOTE.—Weight of paper-sheets between which gold leaf is laid, to be included.		
Gold in the shape of powder or dust for painters' use	1 kilog	2.40
Military haberdashery, of gold or silver:		
Borders, spangles, fringes, galloons, cords, and other articles, n. e. s	1 kilog	2.40
Gums, all kinds, n. e. s		Free.
Gutta-percha, unworked or rolled in sheets		Free.
Manufactures of:		
Pipes, hose, and buffers		Free.
Goloshes, when trimmed with fur, are to be classed with India-rubber clothing		
Other gutta-percha manufactures, n. e. s., and not belonging to the category of machinery, implements, tools, or parts thereof	1 kilog	.94
Fertilizers, all kinds, n. e. s		Free.
Shot	1 kilog	.7
Straw		Free.
Manufactures of, n. e. s	1 kilog	.94
Neck-cloth stiffenings	1 kilog	2.40
Hemp, unhackled or hackled, jute included therein		Free.
Gloves, all kinds	1 kilog	2.40
Glove leather, ready-cut for glove-making	1 kilog	.70
Resin and resin-varnish		Free.
Hats, fully or partly manufactured:		
Of silk, half silk, or any other material not mentioned below, also ladies' bonnets, all kinds	1 piece	1.50
Of wool, hair, felt, or plush	1 piece	.40
Of straw, including s. c. "Panama hats"	1 piece	.40
Other kinds, as of chip, roots or leaves, of oil-cloth, oiled skin, and s. c. "sou'westers"	1 piece	.40
NOTE.—Hats composed of several materials pay duty as if manufactured of the material forming their chief component part.		
Hat linings, of silk or any other textile when united to another material	1 kilog	1.80
Hat shapes, with or without stiffening; to be classed with the manufactures to which they are most nearly allied.		
Honey	1 kilog	.10
Horn:		
Unworked		Free.
Manufactured:		
Sheets and laminæ		Free.
Plates for lanthorns, &c	1 kilog	.50
Buttons, polished or unpolished	1 kilog	.40
Other horn manufactures	1 kilog	1.20
Hides and skins (includes leather):		
When they cannot be looked upon as furs:		
Unprepared, all kinds		Free.
Prepared:		
Sole-leather and alum-tanned leather, also chamois-dressed hides and skins	1 kilog	.15
All other kinds of leather	1 kilog	.50
Furs:		
Unprepared:		
Goat, reindeer, seal, elk, deer, kangaroo, roebuck, hare, and sheep skins, excepting gray Crimean and genuine Astrachan		Free.
Beaver, skunk, chinchilla, marten, mink, sable, black and blue fox, and otter	1 kilog	2.40
All other kinds	1 kilog	.50

*See § 5, appended instructions.

The tariff of Sweden—Continued.

Articles.	Dutiable unit.	Duty.
Hides and skins (includes leather)—Continued.		Kr. öre.
Furs—Continued.		
Prepared:		
Loose or sewed together:		
Goat, reindeer, seal, elk, deer, kangaroo, roebuck, hare, and sheep skins, excepting gray Crimean and genuine Astrachan	1 kilog...	.24
All other kinds pay same duty as similar furs, unprepared, with the addition of 20 per cent.		
Fur manufactures, such as fur coats, muffs, fur collars, &c., pay same duty as the prepared fur of which they are made, with the addition of 20 per cent.		
Hops	1 kilog...	.10
Lobsters	.....	Free.
Spermaceti	.....	Free.
Beet roots:		
Raw	1 kilog...	0.1
Cut and dried	1 kilog...	0.5
Birthwort root	.....	Free.
Hair:		
Horsehair	1 kilog....	.20
Other kinds, n. e. s	.....	Free.
Hair or horsehair manufactures, with or without setting or framing	1 kilog....	.80
Hair tincture or dyes; classed with chemico-technical preparations.		
Hooks, hooks and eyes	1 kilog...	.30
NOTE.—No deduction allowed for weight of boxes or of pasteboard to which hooks are fastened.		
Suspenders or parts thereof:		
Of silk or half silk	1 kilog...	2.40
All other kinds, therein including such silken ones as are partly composed of caoutchouc, India-rubber, or similar materials	1 kilog....	1.20
NOTE.—No deduction allowed for weight of buckles or rings.		
Hay	.....	Free.
Ginger:		
Dried	1 kilog...	.25
Preserved, weight of jugs included	1 kilog ..	.50
Insects; classed with Natural curiosities.		
Insect-powder	.....	Free.
Instruments:		
Surgical, mathematical, optical, physical, and nautical, of all kinds, without or with *étuis* or cases; therein included mounted optical glasses, barometers, and thermometers, also industrial instruments; to be classed with machinery, implements and tools, not specified.		
Musical:		
Flutes, clarinets, and oboës	1 piece....	.50
Guitars, lutes, violins, violoncellos, contrabasses, french horns, trumpets, post-horns, signal horns, drums, kettledrums, harpsichords, barrel-organs, and harps	1 piece....	1.00
Piano-fortes:		
Square or upright	1 piece....	40.00
Grand pianos	1 piece....	60.00
Music-boxes	1 kilog....	1.20
NOTE.—Music-boxes of which the case is made of gold, silver, or tortoise-shell are to be classed as manufactures of those materials.		
Organs and harmoniums, ad valorem	100 kroner	5.00
Musical instruments not specified are to be classed with those among the above-mentioned kinds to which they are most nearly allied.		
NOTE A.—No more than two bows, two mouth-pieces, &c., to be allowed to each instrument. Any above that number, as well as all belongings to musical instruments when separately invoiced, are to pay 10 per cent. ad valorem.		
NOTE B.—Instruments which from their dimensions and general construction are plainly intended for toys are to be classed as such.		
Ship-fittings and furniture, n. e. s., when not consisting of household articles and wearing apparel; also ship-fittings and furniture, of all kinds, when belonging to wrecked or distressed foreign vessels	.....	Free.
Lard, all qualities	.....	Free.
Iron:		
Cast:		
Pig and ballast iron, worthless cannon, shells, mortars, and cannon balls	.....	Free.
Shells and cannon balls when gauged to a definite standard and filed, cannon, field-pieces, swivels, mortars when stamped and bored, also gun-carriages, small or large	1 kilog....	.03
Cannon, field-pieces, swivels, and mortars, all unstamped and unbored; also cooking-range covers and iron weights	1 kilog....	.01
Iron pots, pans, kettles, stoves, ranges and galley-ranges, railings with stays and door-posts, also lock-gates	1 kilog....	.02
Cast-iron articles, n. e. s.:		
For railway plant or for machinery or parts thereof; to be classed with machinery, implements, and tools not specified.		
Common goods:		
a Axles, scales, mortars and pestles, pressing and smoothing irons, tapping irons, &c.	1 kilog....	.07

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The tariff of Sweden—Continued.

Articles.	Dutiable unit.	Duty.
Iron—Continued.		*Kr. öre.*
Cast—Continued.		
Common goods—Continued.		
b Fire-stands, foot-scrapers, padlocks, coffee-mills, copying-presses, umbrella-stands, spittoons, &c.	1 kilog.	.15
Finer goods:		
a Bas-reliefs, flower-vases, busts, fruit épergnes, baskets, candlesticks, lamps, medallions, paper-weights, plateaux, incense-vessels, watch-stands, &c., with or without coloring or japanning	1 kilog.	.25
b Bracelets, chains, crosses, pins, rings, &c.; to be classed with jewelry goods.		
Buttons, japanned or unjapanned	1 kilog.	.15
Shoe nails	1 kilog.	.07
Wrought or rolled:		
Anchors, bolts of all descriptions, anchor-drags, chain-cables, chain-stoppers, hooks, rudder-hinges, and ships' knees		Free.
Chains, when the iron of which the links are forged is less than 6 millimeters in diameter	1 kilog.	.12
Sledge-hammers and anvils; to be classed with machinery, implements, and tools not specified.		
Iron in bars, all kinds, regardless of form or dimensions, therein included beam, band, hoop, T and angle iron; also ingots		Free.
Railway material, n. e. s., or parts thereof; to be classed with machinery, implements, and tools not specified.		
Railway-bars, with their fish-plates, fish-plate bolts, screw-nuts, and spikes		Free.
Other screw-nuts and screws; also nails of a diameter of 12 millimeters or over		Free.
Safes and iron bedsteads, ad valorem	100 kruner	10.00
Plates: galvanized, tinned or untinned, but not further advanced in manufacture; also plates of 3 millimeters or more in thickness, more or less advanced in manufacture, and other similar materials for further manipulation		Free.
Shoe-nails, clipped or cut	1 kilog.	.07
Nails of 45 millimeters in length or over	1 kilog.	.03
All other nails and all other hand or factory made wrought-iron goods, not otherwise provided for:		
When polished or japanned	1 kilog.	.35
Other kinds, with or without a coat of paint	1 kilog.	.15
Gilded, silvered, and plated articles; classed with metals, not specified.		
Iron stain: classed with chemico-technical preparations.		
Scrap iron, cast, wrought, or rolled		Free.
Polishing-earth		Free.
Jute. (See Hemp.)		
Precious stones, set or unset		Free.
Yeast, all kinds		Free.
Coffee, green	1 kilog.	.26
Roasted coffee, and every substitute for coffee in the roasted state	1 kilog.	.35
Cacao	1 kilog.	.30
When ground or grated: to be classed with chocolate.		
Cacao shells	1 kilog.	.10
Dutch tiles, all kinds	1 kilog.	.05
Lime, slaked or unslaked		Free.
Calamus (sweet flag)		Free.
Camphor, raw or refined		Free.
Camphene: to be classed with fossil or mineral oils, rectified.		
Cinnamon, cinnamon buds, and cassia lignea	1 kilog.	.85
Capers, weight of jars included	1 kilog.	.40
Carbolic acid: classed with chemico-technical preparations.		
Burlocks and carding-combs		Free.
Cardamom	1 kilog.	1.20
Cards and carding-leather; to be classed with machinery, implements, and tools not specified.		
Bonnet-frames and similar wire and tape frames	1 kilog.	1.10
NOTE.—No deduction for weight of paper-wrapping or stuffing.		
Maps		Free.
Chestnuts		Free.
Unmanufactured		Free.
India rubber, vulcanized or unvulcanized:		
Manufactured:		
Rolled in sheets of 1 millimeter in thickness or over, with or without textile woof		Free.
Of a thickness less than 1 millimeter, without textile woof	1 kilog.	.94
With woof; to be classed with water-proof textile manufactures.		
Pipe, hose, and buffers		Free.
Shoes bordered with fur, classed with India rubber clothing.		
Erasing-rubber, mounted in wood	1 kilog.	.94
All other India-rubber manufactures, n. e. s., and which cannot be classed with machinery, implements, tools, or parts thereof	1 kilog.	.94
Caviar: includes all fish-roe, salted	1 kilog.	1.80

The tariff of Sweden—Continued.

Articles.	Dutiable unit.	Duty.
		Kr. öre.
Chemico-technical preparations, n. e. s.; includes albumen, aniline colors, glycerine, hair-dyes, carbolic acid, collodion, &c., ad valorem	100 kroner	5.00
Lamp-black	1 kilog	.14
Cinchona bark		Free.
Putty and cementing pastes; all kinds	1 kilog	.07
Bran; all kinds		Free.
Chlor calcium	1 kilog	.02
Chloride of kalium		Free.
Clothing, n. e. s.:		
New wearing apparel, or parts thereof, new table-linen, towels, sheets, pillow-cases, &c., with other similar household articles, even when such articles are marked or trimmed with embroideries, galloons, fringes, blondes, or laces, are to pay duty as manufactures of the cloth or material forming the chief component part of such articles, with an addition of 20 per cent.		
NOTE.—In the case of wearing apparel the outer cloth is to be taken as a basis for assessing the duty; but should it be found difficult to ascertain what is the material forming the chief component part of such outer cloth, the material paying the highest duty is to be chosen as such chief component part.		
Oiled or varnished clothing, not including such as are covered with India rubber or gutta-percha, pay same duty as the cloth of which such clothing is made, without any addition of duty.		
NOTE.—Should it be found difficult to ascertain of what kind of cloth oiled or varnished clothing is made, such clothing is to be classed with "waxed textile manufactures, other kinds." Articles of clothing that are knit or knotted, or made upon the knitting-machine, such as hoods, jackets, and underwear, even when provided with buttons, braid, &c., are to pay duty as knit goods without addition.		
Wearing apparel, belonging to seamen or travelers, when evidently in use, accompanied by the owner and not exceeding his personal needs		Free.
Hoofs; classed with Horn, unmanufactured.		
Gun caps, weight of boxes included	1 kilog	1.20
Acorns, ground or unground		Free.
Buttons:		
Of horn. (See Horn.)		
Of iron. (See Iron.)		
Manufactured of more than one material or of a material not provided for	1 kilog	.50
All other kinds to be classed with manufactures of the substance of which they are made.		
NOTE I.—Where buttons of glass, horn, metal, mother-of-pearl, or jet are only composed of several materials in so far as the shank is of a different substance, such buttons are to be classed as manufactures of glass, horn, metal, &c.		
NOTE II.—No deduction to be allowed for weight of pasteboards to which buttons may be fastened or of the boxes containing them.		
Knives:		
Razors, with or without *etuis*	1 kilog	.60
Penknives	1 kilog	1.20
NOTE.—Knives having other implements or blades besides penknife blades are to be classed with Penknives.		
Knives for chipping for the use of seamen or other coarse use	1 kilog	.14
Table knives and other kinds n. e. s.; also, forks:		
With handles of silver, Britannia metal, ivory, or walrus tusk	1 kilog	1.20
With handles of any other substance	1 kilog	.24
Cobalt ore and cobalt		Free.
Coiffures (headdresses) to be subject to the same provisions as Clothing.		
Charcoal		Free.
Collodion; classed with Chemico-technical preparations.		
Jellies and confectionery (includes jams and fruits preserved in sugar; also, sugar plums and pastilles)	1 kilog	.30
Preserves; comestibles in hermetically closed cans or jars, weight of the cans and jars to be included	1 kilog	.30
Copper:		
Raw or refined		Free.
Hammered, rolled, or cast:		
In plates or in other shapes for further manipulation		Free.
Copper plates and nails for ships' bottoms		Free.
All other completed manufactures:		
Unpolished	1 kilog	.35
Polished	1 kilog	.70
Nickel and copper-nickel		Free.
Scrap copper or old copper, only fit for resmelting, also copper ashes		Free.
Copper-prints, steel and wood engravings, also lithographic and photographic productions, n. e. s.:		
When unframed		Free.
Framed. (See Picture frames.)		
Corals, genuine; unworked or worked but unset		Free.
Set in gold or silver, to be weighed with and pay same duty as the setting.		
Set in any other material, to pay duty as jewelry goods.		
Sausages	1 kilog	.25

The tariff of Sweden—Continued.

Articles.	Dutiable unit.	Duty.
		Kr. öre.
Basket work:		
Of unpeeled twigs or course chips	1 kilog	.10
All other kinds	1 kilog	.60
Coriander	1 kilog	.25
Currants	1 kilog	.25
Corks, cut:		
Not mounted	1 kilog	.35
Mounted	1 kilog	1.20
Cork bark, unmanufactured		Free.
Cork soles	1 kilog	.35
When a textile material or leather is a component part of them *ad valorem*	100 kroner.	10.00
Animals, living; all kinds		Free.
Animals' feed or fodder; all n. e. s.		Free.
Hoopskirts, made of springs covered with thread or yarn and held together by tapes sewed thereon, are to be classed as Clothing of tape or ribbon; if the skirts are made of cloth and provided with springs, they are to pay duty as Clothing made of the cloth used as the outer covering of such skirts.		
Crystal manufactures; to be classed with Glass, all other kinds.		
Chalk, white, and chalkstone, whole or ground, also red and black chalk and pastel chalks		Free.
When mounted or set; to be classed with Pencils.		
Fish-hooks		Free.
Bichromate of potash; classed with Colors and dye-stuffs, not specified.		
Pottery manufactures, n. e. s., unglazed or glazed, painted or unpainted, also terra-cotta and terralith	1 kilog	.07
Gunpowder and other explosives or cartridges made of such	1 kilog	.12
Tincture for coloring wine:		
When mixed with water; classed with Sirups.		
When mixed with spirits; classed with Liqueurs.		
Carraway seed	1 kilog	.04
Walking canes, all kinds	1 kilog	2.70
Cases, boxes, cans, jars, baling and all similar articles, when evidently used simply to protect the merchandise therein packed, except where it is specially provided that the weight of such packing shall be included in assessing duty		Free.
Meats, all kinds		Free.
Sealing wax	1 kilog	.50
Japanned or lacquered ware:		
Of tinned plate. (See Tin-plate manufactures.)		
Of lead. (See Lead worked.)		
Of leather. (See Leather manufactures.)		
Of pasteboard. (See Pasteboard manufactures.)		
Of tin. (See Tin, manufactured.)		
Of wood. (See Wood manufactures.)		
Of zinc. (See Zinc, worked.)		
All other kinds, n. e. s	1 kilog	.50
Patent leather; to be classed with Hides and skins.		
Litmus		Free.
Laurel leaves and berries	1 kilog	.12
Licorice	1 kilog	.12
Licorice root		Free.
Lamps and lanterns; to be classed with Manufactures of the material which is their chief component part.		
NOTE.—Glass globes belonging to lamps are to be classed with Glass.		
Toys:		
When made of wood or of more than one material, with or without staining, painting, or japanning	1 kilog	.50
All other kinds; to be classed with manufactures of the material of which they are made.		
NOTE.—No deduction allowed for the weight of paper, boxes, &c., immediately surrounding toys.		
Clay		Free.
Clay pipes. (See Pipe-bowls.)		
Scythes; to be classed with Machinery, implements, and tools not specified.		
Liqueurs	1 liter	.70
Glue:		
Isinglass and gelatine	1 kilog	1.70
All other kinds	1 kilog	.14
Limes:		
Fresh; classed with Lemons.		
Salted; classed with Preserved fruits.		
Lime juice, classed with Lemon juice.		
Flax, hackled or unhackled		Free.
Lentils; classed with grain and breadstuffs.		
Candles:		
Of tallow and palmitine	1 kilog	.07
All other kinds	1 kilog	.12
Chandeliers or parts thereof, n. e. s.; to be classed with manufactures of the material which is their chief component part, without deducting the weight of lamp-chimneys or glass globes thereto belonging.		
Smelling waters, eaux de toilette, &c., weight of bottles included	1 kilog	1.00
Rags, also if already prepared for the paper manufacture		Free.

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The tariff of Sweden—Continued.

Articles.	Dutiable unit.	Duty.
		Kr. öre.
Lunt		Free.
Leather. (See Hides and skins.)		
Leather manufactures, n. e. s., are to pay the same duty as the leather which is their chief component part with the addition of 20 per cent.		
NOTE.—Leather belting, sewed or riveted, or otherwise evidently intended for use in connection with machinery, to be classed with Parts of machinery.		
Lasts, for shoemaking		Free.
Onions, all kinds, n. e. s	1 kilog	.05
Mattresses; to be classed with Bedding.		
NOTE.—Mattresses provided with frames or springs to be classed with manufactured goods not mentioned in tariff.		
Indian corn, ground or unground	1 kilog	.01 3/10
Maizena. (See Starch.)		
Ores, all kinds, n. e. s		Free.
Ore specimens		Free.
Malt liquors:		
In barrels:		
Porter	1 kilog	.07
All other kinds	1 kilog	.05
In bottles or jugs:		
Porter	1 liter	.12
All other kinds	1 liter	.08
Almonds	1 kilog	.35
Mica		Free.
Masks	1 piece	.10
Machinery, implements, and tools, or parts thereof, n. e. s		Free.
Machine and wagon grease	1 kilog	.05
Mats and matting:		
Of chip, straw, roots, bullrushes, cocoanut bristles, or rattan	1 kilog	.07
NOTE.—Matting used in stowing a ship's cargo, or as protection to the same, is not subject to duty.		
Of bast. (See Bast matting.)		
Of grass. (See Grass mats.)		
Medals, all kinds		Free.
Brass; classed with Metals, not specified.		
Metals, n. e. s., simple or compound:		
Unworked		Free.
Worked:		
Plates, brass sheets, and hoop-bands, also in other shapes for further manipulation		Free.
Sheet-metal and nails for sheathing vessels		Free.
Other articles, flattened brass wire and metal-cloth included:		
When more or less gilded, silvered, or plated, or covered with (socalled) "gold-burnishing"	1 kilog	.70
Articles not having any such outer coating or finishing	1 kilog	.35
Scrap and old, previously-used metal, n. e. s., only fit for resmelting		Free.
Microscopes; classed with Instruments.		
Minerals for collections of natural history		Free.
Mead	1 liter	.10
Flour, n. e. s., of vegetable origin, that cannot be included in Grain and breadstuffs or in Medicines		Free.
Of grain. (See Grain and breadstuffs.)		
Of arrowroot. (See Flour, of vegetable origin, n. e. s.)		
Mosaic articles; to be classed with Stones, worked.		
Mulberry sirup; to be classed with Wines.		
Mouth harmonicas; classed with Toys.		
Sealing wafers, cut or in sheets	1 kilog	1.00
NOTE.—No deduction for weight of boxes, paper bags, or other similar wrapping.		
Morils; to be classed with Mushrooms.		
Bricks; to be classed with Tiles and bricks.		
Music notes or books		Free.
Nutmegs, dried, and mace	1 kilog	1.20
When preserved; classed with Jellies.		
Musk		Free.
Mussels and oysters:		
Fresh, weight of cans or jars included	1 kilog	.05
Pickled or salted	1 liter	.15
Coin, of gold, silver, or copper		Free.
Myrrh; classed with Apothecaries' stock.		
Pictures and drawings, unframed		Free.
Caps, for men; classed with Clothing.		
Cap-linings. (See Hat-linings.)		
Valises, traveling-bags, and hat-boxes	1 kilog	.50
Natural curiosities for scientific collections		Free.
Cloves	1 kilog	.50
"Nicht" (pollen of *Lycopodium clavatum*)		Free.
Pins and needles, not made of gold or silver and not properly coming within the category of jewelry goods	1 kilog	.40
NOTE.—No deduction for the weight of boxes or of paper upon which pins are fastened.		

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The tariff of Sweden—Continued.

Articles.	Dutiable unit.	Duty.
		Kr. öre.
Birch-bark strips		Free.
Nets, all kinds; to pay same duty as the yarn of which they are made, with the addition of 10 per cent.		
Nuts:		
Cocoa-nuts	1 piece	.10
Hazel-nuts, walnuts, and other kinds	1 kilog	.25
Olives	1 kilog	.25
Oils:		
Fat oils, not volatile:		
Sweet or olive oil:		
In barrels	1 kilog	.02
In bottles or similar vessels	1 kilog	.05
Hemp, cocoa-nut, palm, and spermaceti oil	1 kilog	.05
Croton-oil; classed with Apothecaries' stock.		
All other fat oils, n. e. s	1 kilog	.07
Boiled oils. (See Varnishes.)		
Volatile oils, vegetable:		
Cognac, rum, and arrak essences; classed with Ethers.		
Not otherwise provided for, weight of bottles included	1 kilog	.60
Fossil or mineral oils and such as are produced by dry distillation:		
Native or raw, with earthy or resin-like impurities, of dark-brown or black-brown color		Free.
Rectified mineral oils, such as coal oil or petroleum, when colorless or yellow-brown till yellow in color; rectified rock and earth oils, naphtha, so-called "solar-oil," paraffine oil, and other similar liquids used as lighting material	1 kilog	.05
NOTE.—S. c. lighting fluid, composed of volatile oil and spirits, is to be classed with Rectified mineral oils.		
Oil-cake		Free.
Cheese; all kinds	1 kilog	.07
Oysters; classed with Mussels.		
Pasteboard	1 kilog	.05
Pasteboard and paper manufactures, all kinds:		
Unjapanned	1 kilog	.35
Japanned, includes papier-maché goods	1 kilog	.60
Paper:		
Sheathing, pressing, roofing, polishing, and emery paper		Free.
Cartridge and wrapping paper	1 kilog	.02
Blotting pad, plain or colored, printing and engraving paper	1 kilog	.05
For the manufacture of paper hangings	1 kilog	.09
All other kinds, ruled paper therein included	1 kilog	.19
Paper hangings and borders	1 kilog	.19
Paraffine, unrefined		Free.
When refined, to be classed with Chemico-technical preparations.		
Umbrellas and parasols:		
Of silk or half silk, in the latter case irrespective of the greater or lesser proportion of silk.	1 piece	.75
All other kinds	1 piece	.25
Parts of umbrellas and parasols:		
Frames	1 kilog	.35
Coverings, cut or sewed, are to pay same duty as the material of which they consist, with the addition of 10 per cent.		
Umbrella covers or *étuis:*		
Of leather, imported separately or with the umbrellas. (See Leather manufactures.)		
Of cloth, imported by themselves, pay same duty as the material of which they are made, with the addition of 10 per cent.		
Perfumes, n. e. s., weight of bottles and wrapping included	1 kilog	1.00
Pens, writing, all kinds	1 kilog	.60
NOTE.—Weight of boxes and pasteboards included.		
Pen-holders:		
All kinds, except those made of gold or silver	1 kilog	.60
Of gold or silver. (See Gold or Silver in a worked state.)		
Hair pencils; to be classed with Machinery, implements, and tools, not specified.		
Pepper; all kinds	1 kilog	.30
NOTE.—In assessing duty upon Cayenne pepper, the weight of the bottles or cans is to be included.		
Parchment; classed with Hides and skins.		
Mother-of-pearl:		
Unworked		Free.
Worked:		
Without setting	1 kilog	.50
Set in gold or silver; to be weighed with and pay same duty as the setting.		
Set in other materials; to be classed with Jewelry goods		
NOTE.—No deduction allowed for the weight of boxes, *étuis*, or pasteboards to which articles may be fastened.		
Pearls:		
Genuine; loose or mounted		Free.
Imitation:		
Made of glass	1 kilog	35

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The tariff of Sweden—Continued.

Articles.	Dutiable unit.	Duty.
		Kr. öre
Pearls—Continued.		
Imitation—Continued.		
All other kinds	1 kilog	
Set in gold or silver; to be weighed with and pay same duty as the setting.		
Set in any other material than gold or silver; to be classed with Jewelry goods.		
NOTE.—The last section applies to bracelets of glass beads provided with plates or fasteners of glass.		
Peach pits	1 kilog	
Wigs and parts thereof	1 kilog	
Pumice stone		Free.
Pipe bowls, mounted or unmounted (includes cigar-holders and pipes):		
Of meerschaum, genuine or imitation	1 kilog	
All other kinds	1 kilog	
NOTE.—No deduction for weight of *étuis*, boxes, paper or similar wrapping.		
Pistachios; to be classed with Fruits, dried.		
Pistols. (See Guns.)		
Plants		Free.
Platinum, worked or unworked		Free.
Prunes, dried	1 kilog	.20
Plumes, all kinds; includes ostrich feathers	1 kilog	7.00
Pomades, weight of pots included	1 kilog	.35
Orange-flower water, weight of bottles included	1 kilog	.10
Bitter oranges	1 kilog	.25
Bitter-orange buds and peel, dried	1 kilog	.25
Porcelain:		
Not real, stone-china or faïence:		
White or of uniform color, but unpainted:		
Plates	1 kilog	.07
All other pieces	1 kilog	.12
Painted or printed:		
Plates	1 kilog	.14
All other pieces	1 kilog	.19
Genuine:		
White or of uniform color	1 kilog	.24
Gilded, silvered, or printed with designs or flowers	1 kilog	.47
Portfolios, money-purses, reticules, pouches, and cigar-cases:		
Of silk or half silk	1 kilog	2.00
All other kinds	1 kilog	.50
NOTE.—No deduction allowed for weight of boxes, paper, or other wrapping, or for inlaying (of paper in portfolios).		
Potatoes, whole, cut, or grated		Free.
Potato-flour and starch material derived from potatoes. (See Starch.)		
Potash. (See Ashes.)		
Pozzolana (volcanic ashes)		Free.
Tarpaulins; classed with Textile manufactures, waxed.		
Poudre de riz; to be classed with Flour, of vegetable origin, not specified		
Quicksilver	1 kilog	.35
Implements or parts thereof; classed with Machinery, implements, and tools, not specified.		
Traveling blankets, double, sewed together or bordered; to be classed as manufactures of the textile which is their chief component part.		
Sounding-boards, planed. (See Wood manufactures.)		
Rice, unshelled, or paddy		Free.
Rice; classed with Grits.		
Rice-flour		Free.
Rosmarin		Free.
Raisins	1 kilog	.25
Raisin stems		Free.
Nux vomica; classed with Apothecaries' stock.		
Incense. (See Perfumes.)		
Rattans, reeds, &c.:		
Bamboo and Spanish reed	1 kilog	.14
Common rattans and reeds	1 kilog	.02
Manufactures thereof that cannot be classed with basket work	1 kilog	.35
When coming as base-layers for a ship's cargo		Free.
Roots:		
Edible, n. e. s.		Free.
For druggists' use; classed with Apothecaries' stock.		
Sabers and saber-blades; classed with Iron manufactures.		
Saddlery, n. e. s., all kinds	1 kilog	.50
Morocco; classed with Hides and skins.		
Saffron	1 kilog	5.00
Sago; classed with Grits.		
Salep root		Free.
Salmiac		Free.
Saltpeter, raw or refined; also Chilian saltpeter, or nitrate of soda		Free.
Nitric acid and aqua fortis		Free.
Salts, raw or refined, all kinds, n. e. s.		Free.

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The tariff of Sweden—Continued.

Articles.	Dutiable unit.	Duty.
		Kr. öre.
Hydrochloric acid		Free.
Sand		Free.
Sandarac; classed with Gums, not specified.		
Sassafras; classed with Apothecaries' stock.		
Scissors:		
For tailors' and gardeners' use, shearing-scissors; also shears for clipping plates or sheet metal; to be classed with Machinery, implements, and tools, not specified.		
Other kinds:		
Unpolished	1 kilog	.24
Polished	1 kilog	.60
Shellac; to be classed with Gums.		
Sails, duty to be assessed according to the material of which they are made. Saved from stranded or wrecked foreign vessels. (See Ship fittings.)		
Sail duck. (See Textile manufactures.)		
Sail thread. (See Yarns.)		
Mustard:		
Whole	1 kilog	.67
Ground or prepared	1 kilog	.60
Senna leaves; classed with Apothecaries' stock.		
Shawls, neck cloths, and tichus; to be classed with Textile manufactures.		
Shoddy		Free.
Sieves and colanders	1 kilog	.60
Straining cloth:		
Composed of more than one metal. (See Metals, worked.)		
Of iron or steel. (See Iron manufactures.)		
Of copper. (See Copper, completed manufactures of.)		
Of other material. (See Textile manufactures.)		
Silver:		
Unworked		Free.
Worked; plain or gilded	1 kilog	7.00
Silver leaf (foil), genuine or imitation		Free.
In the shape of dust or powder for painters' use		Free.
Silk, raw:		
Uncolored		Free.
Colored	1 kilog	.94
Sirups, all kinds	1 kilog	.10
Sea charts. (See Maps.)		
Shave grass		Free.
Boots and shoes:		
Of silk	1 kilog	2.40
Of cloth, morocco, Cordova leather, colored, pressed or printed leather	1 kilog	1.40
Pitch-sewed boots and s. c. "sealboots"		Free.
With wooden soles		Free.
All other kinds	1 kilog	.94
Felt shoes:		
With leather soles; to be classed with Boots and shoes, all other kinds.		
Without leather soles, to be classed with Textiles, woolen blankets and covers.		
Writing tablets:		
Set between covers, with or without hinges, ad valorem	100 kroner	10.00
All other kinds		Free.
Scrubbing mops; to be classed with Machinery, implements, and tools, not specified.		
Shovels, spades, and reaping hooks, of iron; to be classed with Machinery, implements, and tools, not specified.		
Tortoise shell:		
Unworked		Free.
Worked	1 kilog	5.00
Industrial productions of every kind, not specially mentioned and provided for in this tariff, are to be classed as manufactures of the material which is their chief component part, or in case the chief component part cannot be determined, then ad valorem	100 kroner	10.00
Emery		Free.
Emery cloth; to be classed with Machinery, implements, and tools, not specified.		
Rouge powders and rouging-cloths		Free.
Butter		Free.
Cabinet-makers' productions. (See Wood manufactures.)		
Snuff. (See Tobacco.)		
Snails. (See Natural curiosities.)		
Lacings and cords. (See Military haberdashery or passementerie.)		
When made of gut. (See Strings.)		
Passementerie, such as fringes, galloons, aiguillettes, lacings, cords, n. e. s.:		
Of silk or half silk	1 kilog	3.50
All other kinds, therein included articles partly of silk, of which caoutchouc, India rubber, or similar substances are a component part	1 kilog	1.10
NOTE.—No deduction for paper wrapping or paper inlaying.		
Sugar:		
Refined, all kinds, such as loaf sugar, rock candy, crushed or powdered sugar	1 kilog	.33

The tariff of Sweden—Continued.

Articles.	Dutiable unit.	Duty.
		Kr. öre.
Sugar—Continued.		
Raw:		
a When not darker in color than No. 18 Dutch standard, of which normal samples shall be supplied to each custom-house by the general customs department	1 kilog	.33
b When darker than the above-named standard; also, if the sugar arrives in a dissolved or liquid state	1 kilog	.23.5
NOTE.—Any package found to contain different grades of sugar, subject to different duties, will be considered as if it contained the highest duty bearing grade and will be assessed accordingly.		
Carbonate of soda and caustic soda		Free.
Sauces and soyer; weight of bottles included	1 kilog	.30
Fans	1 kilog	1.20
Grain and breadstuffs; all kinds, ground or unground*		Free.
Spanish flies; classed with Apothecaries' stock.		
Verdigris; classed with Colors and dye-stuffs.		
Mirrors and sconces	1 kilog	.24
Playing-cards	1 pack	.10
Laces and blondes:		
Silk laces, with or without admixture of another material	1 kilog	3.50
All other kinds	1 kilog	2.30
NOTE.—No deduction for weight of paper wrapping or inlaying.		
Fire engines, with belongings, ad valorem	100 kroner	5.00
Lard		Free.
Stocks with buckles and other stiff neck-cloths; to be classed with Clothing.		
Stearine	1 kilog	.09
Stone, all kinds, worked or unworked, n. e. s		Free.
Coal, broken or whole; also, coke or desulphurized coal		Free.
Articles of jet, unset or set in any other material than gold or silver, are to be classed with Jewelry goods. Set in gold or silver; to be weighed with and pay same duty as the setting.		
Coal-tar		Free.
Dust or powder, colored or uncolored, for use in the manufacture of wall-papers		Free.
Storax		Free.
Stockings and other hand or machine knit articles, n. e. s.:		
Of silk or half-silk	1 kilog	3.50
All other kinds	1 kilog	1.20
Knitting needles	1 kilog	.24
Strings:		
Of metal	1 kilog	.24
Of any other material	1 kilog	1.20
Stucco articles; to be classed with Stone.		
Steel, all kinds		Free.
Steel manufactures, n. e. s.; to be classed with Iron manufactures.		
Starch, of wheat, potatoes, or other vegetable substances	1 kilog	.14
Sulphur, all kinds		Free.
Flowers of sulphur		Free.
Sulphuric acid		Free.
Mushrooms, all kinds not otherwise provided for	1 kilog	.40
Sewing-machines; to be classed with Machinery, implements, and tools, not specified.		
Saws, saw blades, and saw materials (untoothed saws); to be classed with Machinery, implements, and tools not specified.		
Soft soap	1 kilog	.07
Sacks:		
New, empty; classed with the material of which they are made.		
Showing previous use		Free.
Bedding is to pay the duty provided for the textile material of which its outer covering consists.		
When stuffed with horse-hair or any other dutiable substance, but covered with a material free of duty, it is to be classed with Industrial productions of every kind, not specially mentioned in this tariff.		
When belonging to travelers or seafaring men, when showing evident marks of previous use, or when carried by the owner and judged not to exceed his personal needs		Free.
Picture-frames; to be classed with manufactures of the material which is their chief component part, without deduction for weight of pictures, glass, &c.		
Photograph-frames, of pasteboard or of pasteboard and glass. (See Pasteboard manufactures.)		
Made of bronzed pasteboard. (See Pasteboard manufactures, japanned.)		
NOTE.—When picture-frames under the above provision are to pay duty ad valorem, the picture or drawing therein framed is to be excluded from the valuation.		
Substitutes for horse-hair, and moss prepared as a stuffing material; to be classed with Grasses, n. e. s.		
Tallow		Free.
Tamarinds	1 kilog	.10
Tooth-powder; classed with Merchandise, manufactured, not provided for.		
Bricks and roof-tiles, all kinds		Free.

* See § 5, appended instructions.

The tariff of Sweden—Continued.

Articles.	Dutiable unit.	Duty.
		Kr. öre.
Brass studs or nails	1 kilog	.35
Tin:		
Unworked, also worked, if old or broken		Free.
Worked, new:		
Gilded, silvered, lacquered, or painted	1 kilog	.70
All other kinds	1 kilog	.35
Tin and lead ashes		Free.
Tin salts and chlorides of tin		Free.
Turpentine, native or raw		Free.
Turpentine oil or spirits of turpentine	1 kilog	.07
Tea	1 kilog	1.40
Newspapers and reviews		Free.
Tar and tar-water (the latter is a residual product of tar, used in tanning)		Free.
Tobacco:		
Unmanufactured; leaf or stems	1 kilog	1.00
Manufactured:		
Cigars and cigarettes	1 kilog	3.00
All other kinds	1 kilog	1.20
Clay pipes and porcelain pipes. (See Pipe-bowls.)		
Train oil, of all kinds (includes fish-oils)		Free.
Tripoli		Free.
Truffles, weight of glass or jar included	1 kilog	.30
Wire:		
Gold and silver wire	1 kilog	2.40
Iron and steel wire		Free.
Articles made of iron and steel wire; to be classed with "All other factory or hand made iron goods."		
Copper wire or wire of any other metal not here mentioned:		
When gilded, silvered, or plated	1 kilog	2.40
All other kinds		Free.
Iron, copper, brass and steel wire for musical instruments. (See Strings.)		
Metal wire, woven over or covered with silk or yarn. (See Bonnet-frames and similar wire and tape frames.)		
Threads and twines:		
Of cotton, all kinds	1 kilog	.47
Of linen, unbleached	1 kilog	.47
Of linen, bleached or colored	1 kilog	.70
Of silk, cotton, or linen, when covered with gold, silver, or any other metal; to be classed with Military haberdashery.		
Trees, all kinds		Free.
Timber and lumber:		
Rough timber, all kinds		Free.
Hoop poles		Free.
Beams and rafters, all kinds		Free.
Boards and planks, sawn, all kinds		Free.
Juniper boards and staves		Free.
Gun-stocks, in the rough		Free.
Handspikes, finished and in the rough		Free.
Moldings and laths, all kinds		Free.
Masts, booms, and spars; also hollowed		Free.
Logs for pumps		Free.
Scantling, all kinds		Free.
Staves and barrel-heads, all kinds		Free.
Hoops		Free.
Fire-wood, all kinds		Free.
Oars in the rough		Free.
Wood manufactures:		
Veneers of 7 millimeters or less in thickness pay half the duty imposed upon cabinet-makers' work of the same wood. Thin boards, intended for the manufacture of cigar-boxes, if within the above-mentioned dimensions, are to be classed as Veneers.		
Laminæ of ebony for piano keys		Free.
Turners' work, n. e. s., with or without staining, painting, or japanning		
When articles weigh less than 1 kilogram apiece	1 kilog	.60
When articles weigh 1 kilogram or over each; to be classed with Cabinet-makers' work.		
Wooden articles in a more or less advanced stage of manufacture, n. e. s., therein included cabinetmakers' and chairmakers' work:		
Of fir or spruce, with or without paint, staining, or japanning	1 kilog	.02
Of elm, ash, birch, beech, oak, walnut, and other domestic woods, with or without paint, staining, or japanning, or with veneering of above-mentioned woods	1 kilog	.07
Of mahogany, jack-wood, or any other exotic wood, massive or only with veneers thereof, also cabinet work gilt or imitation gilt	1 kilog	.12
NOTE.—Wood manufactures composed of several kinds of woods pay duty as if entirely made of the kind paying the highest duty.		
Furniture when already stuffed but not covered pays duty under the above provisions, without addition. Furniture when stuffed and covered pays duty under the above provisions with the addition of 20 per cent.		

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The tariff of Sweden—Continued.

Articles.	Dutiable unit.	Duty.
		Kr. öre.
Foot-rules. (See Instruments, industrial.)		
Heavy-spar (sulph. of baryta). Unground; to be classed with Stone. Ground; classed with Colors and dye-stuffs.		
India ink; classed with Colors and dye-stuffs.		
Soaps:		
Perfumed soaps	1 kilog.	.30
All other kinds	1 kilog.	.12
Soap-wort		Free.
Cordage, new		Free.
Artificial teeth; classed with Merchandise, manufactured, not mentioned in this tariff.		
Matches, made of wood or of other material; also tinder, weight of boxes or wrapping immediately surrounding them to be included	1 kilog.	.05
Wool all kinds		Free.
Watches and clocks:		
Watches, with gold case	1 piece	1.00
Watches, with case of any other material	1 piece	.50
Watch-cases, separate, are to be classed with manufactures of the substance of which they are made.		
Ships' chronometers	1 piece	1.00
Wall and mantle-piece clocks in cases:		
Of bronze or other metal; also of alabaster or porcelain	1 kilog.	.70
Of wood or other material	1 kilog.	.50
Clock-cases, separate, clock-weights; also steeple-clocks and parts thereof pay same duty as the manufactures of the material of which such articles are composed.		
Unmounted watch or clock-works, or parts of watches and clocks, n. e. s	1 kilog.	1.80
Watch-glasses. (See Glass.)		
Wadding:		
Of silk	1 kilog.	3.50
All other kinds	1 kilog.	.24
Carriages and vehicles, including railway cars:		
Carts and trucks, for hauling	1 piece	5.00
Two-wheeled carriages and sleighs	1 piece	15.00
Four-wheeled:		
Gigs	1 piece	25.00
Gigs, half-topped	1 piece	50.00
All other kinds	1 piece	100.00
NOTE.—If any doubt arises as to the class in which a carriage properly belongs, such carriage is to pay 10 per cent. ad valorem, total duty however not in any case to exceed 100 kroner.		
Carriage-makers' productions, n. e. s., are to be classed with industrial productions of every kind not specially mentioned in this tariff.		
Vanilla	1 kilog.	13.00
Mittens:		
Silk or half silk	1 kilog.	3.50
All other kinds	1 kilog.	1.20
When covered with leather or fur; to be classed with Gloves.		
Mineral waters		Free.
Water glass or a solution of silicic acid in kalium or natron, ad valorem	100 kroner.	5.00
Wax, all kinds		Free.
Wax-works; classed with Merchandise, manufactured, not specified.		
Wicks, for lamps or candles	1 kilog.	1.00
NOTE.—No deduction for weight of boxes or paper wrapping.		
Tools, or parts thereof, n. e. s.; classed with Machinery, implements, and tools not specified.		
Tool-chests for children, containing tools that cannot be used for work; to be classed with Toys.		
Wines, all kinds:		
Containing 21 per cent. or less of alcohol:		
In barrels	1 kilog.	16.5
In bottles	1 liter	.21
Containing from over 21 per cent. to 25 per cent. of pure alcohol:		
In barrels	1 kilog.	.45
In bottles	1 liter	.80
Containing more than 25 per cent. alcohol; to be classed with Liqueurs.		
Wine-lees		Free.
Grapes, fresh		Free.
Cream of tartar:		
Raw or refined		Free.
In crystals		Free.
Tartaric acid: to be classed with Chemico-technical preparations.		
Orris root		Free.
Orris sirup; to be classed with Sirups.		
Visiting and business cards	1 kilog.	.20
Bismuth	1 kilog.	.30
Vitriol, all kinds		Free.
Oil or spirits of vitriol: (See Sulphuric acid.)		
Textile manufactures:		
Of pure silk:		
Velvet and plush	1 kilog.	2.40

The tariff of Sweden—Continued.

Articles.	Dutiable unit.	Duty.
Textile manufactures—Continued.		*Kr. öre.*
Of pure silk—Continued.		
Other kinds, therein included gold and silver cloth	1 kilog.	3.50
NOTE.—Velvet of which the nap is silk and the back is cotton, is to pay duty under last section.		
Half-silk:		
Velvet and plush, also rugs	1 kilog.	2.40
Other kind of half silk textures	1 kilog.	2.40
Of cotton:		
Bookbinders' cloth	1 kilog.	.50
Velveteen and plush, also rugs and fustian	1 kilog.	.94
Gauze, linings, muslins, organdies, and batiste	1 kilog.	1.76
Sail-duck	1 kilog.	.14
Tulle	1 kilog.	2.90
All other kinds of cotton textures:		
If unbleached and undyed	1 kilog.	.58
If bleached or dyed	1 kilog.	.94
If printed or embossed	1 kilog.	1.18
With smaller or greater admixture of linen, hemp, or jute:		
Bed-tick	1 kilog.	.94
Damask and diaper	1 kilog.	1.20
Carpet stuffs	1 kilog.	.40
Other kinds: to be classed with similar fabrics composed solely of cotton.		
Of wool:		
Of pure wool or with smaller or greater admixture of cotton, linen, or any other textile except silk:		
Feltings and carpets	1 kilog.	.60
Machine-felting, specially made for the purpose; classed with Machinery, implements, and tools not specified.		
Cloth for steam-packing	1 kilog.	.24
All other kinds of woolen textures	1 kilog.	1.76
Of flax or hemp, with or without admixture of jute:		
Gunny-cloth, sack-cloth, canvas, and saddle-girth webbing	1 kilog.	.35
Bed-tick	1 kilog.	.94
Batiste, gauze, cambrics, lawns, damask, and "linens" of all kinds	1 kilog.	1.76
Carpetings, even if any other textile specified in this tariff is a component part thereof	1 kilog.	.40
Cloth for steam-packing	1 kilog.	.24
Sail and tent duck	1 kilog.	.19
All other kinds, diaper included	1 kilog.	1.50
Of jute:		
Unbleached and undyed sack and baling-cloth		Free.
All other kinds	1 kilog.	.40
Of mohair or horse-hair:		
Cow hair-felt		Free.
All other kinds	1 kilog.	.60
Waxed or enameled:		
Oil-cloth carpeting	1 kilog.	.24
All other kinds	1 kilog.	.60
Waterproof textures, permeated with a solution of caoutchouc, India rubber, &c.	1 kilog.	1.76
Elastic webbing, containing fibers of caoutchouc or similar substances; to be classed with Ribbons, all other kinds.		
Swords and sword blades. (See Iron.)		
Grafting wax		Free.
Axes; to be classed with Machinery, implements, and tools not specified.		
Zinc:		
Unworked or in plates		Free.
Sheets and nails for ships' bottoms		Free.
Manufactures of:		
Unpainted and unjapanned	1 kilog.	.07
Painted or japanned	1 kilog.	.35
Gilded, silvered, or plated	1 kilog.	.70
Zinc-blende		Free.
Zitver root (root of *Carcuma zedoaria*)		Free.
Steam engines and steam-boilers		Free.
Eggs		Free.
Vinegar and acetic acid, all kinds:		
When containing 10 per cent. of acid or less	1 kilog.	.20
For every 1 per cent. increase beyond 10 per cent. of acid the duty is to be increased two ore per kilogram.		
Ale. (See Malt liquors.)		
Merchandise not mentioned in this tariff, and which cannot be classed in any of the categories created by its provisions:		
If a raw product		Free.
If manufactured or more or less worked, ad valorem	100 kronor.	10.00

NOTE.—The word "polished," when used in this tariff in connection with iron articles or other metal wares, is to be understood as meaning that such articles have sufficient finish not to show any traces of filing.

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INSTRUCTIONS TO BE OBSERVED IN APPLYING THE PROVISIONS OF THIS TARIFF.

§ 1.

Whenever in the assessment of duty there arises a fraction amounting to less than half an öre, such fraction is not to be considered, but where a fraction amounts to half an öre or over, such fraction is to be reckoned as one öre additional.

§ 2.

The weights and measures mentioned in this tariff are identical with those prescribed in the royal ordinance of November 22, 1878.

§ 3.

Merchandise imported in foreign bottoms is not to pay either additional or higher dues than if it arrives in Swedish vessels.

§ 4.

Tonnage dues, whether for Swedish or foreign vessels, amount to 14 öre per ton, calculated as per register, and such dues are to be paid each time, both on arrival and clearance; but in case a vessel during one and the same calendar year makes several voyages between Sweden and foreign countries, such dues are to be exacted only for the first clearance, and in case of a repeated arrival only when the vessel carries cargo and discharges a greater or lesser part thereof; and it will be proper to consider as vessels in ballast, such vessels whose cargo only amounts to a small fraction of their carrying capacity; in regard to all of which the regulations contained in the royal ordinance of June 5, 1874, are to be followed.

When a vessel discharges or loads at several ports, tonnage-dues are only to be imposed at the first loading or discharging point, and an acknowledgment of their payment is to be affixed to the manifest or clearance.

Exemption from tonnage-dues is granted to vessels, whether bound for a Swedish port or other destination, that arrive and leave "in ballast"; to vessels that, while engaged in voyages between foreign ports, call at a Swedish port in order only to land passengers and their effects, or to discharge goods into another vessel for export; to vessels that come "in distress" or for the purpose of receiving orders as to the further prosecution of the voyage, that do not discharge cargo and do not load anything besides necessaries and stores for the use of the crew, passengers, or ship; to vessels that in consequence of injury by the elements, of which due marine protest has been made, enter a Swedish port and discharge cargo, and, after repairs are completed, reload the original cargo and proceed on the voyage; to vessels that, from abovementioned causes, discharge cargo and therefrom sell a smaller or greater part, when such sale is limited to what is shown to be required to furnish means for the expense incurried for repairs; and to vessels that, while on a voyage between foreign ports, discharge or load merchandise not exceeding one-fourth the vessel's carrying capacity, to be calculated as per vessel's papers.

In all these cases it is incumbent upon the shipmasters to follow the regulations prescribed concerning arrivals and the delivery of manifest, and also those bearing upon the taking out of clearance.

§ 5.

Importations of the following "free" goods shall pay a "registering fee," as follows: Wheat flour, 1 öre per kilogram; grits, all kinds, 1 ore per kilogram; beans, 1 öre per kilogram.

§ 6.

Importers of merchandise subject to ad valorem duties under the provisions of this tariff must declare the purchasing price paid, with the addition of insurance, freight, and other expenses incurred up to arrival at the port of entry. The importer's statements must, as far as practicable, be supported by the exhibition of invoices and bills of lading. If these documents are not produced, it becomes the duty of the custom-house authorities—as it is in all cases their right—to have the merchandise submitted to the inspection of two experts, who are either to indorse the declared

valuation, or make such addition thereto as they consider just. If the importer refuses to enter the goods according to the valuation put upon them by the inspecting experts, his refusal shall be affixed in writing to his original declaration, and the merchandise shall, as promptly as practicable, and, at the latest, within one month from the day of inspection, be sold at public auction by the custom-house authorities. After deduction of the duty assessed upon proceeds of the sale in case such exceed the importer's valuation, but in no case less than it would have been upon such valuation, and of the auction expenses, the remainder is to be turned over to the importer.

Personal property in actual use, and traveling effects that do not constitute merchandise, are to be dealt with according to the regulations therefor provided.

§ 7.

The properly-authorized manufacturing and industrial boards, or, in case such do not exist, the municipal authorities, are to appoint one or more persons in every staple town, whose duty it shall be to see that merchandise belonging to special branches or trades is properly classed as to kind and value; but the absence of these persons is not to act as a bar to the entry of merchandise and the payment of duty thereon.

§ 8.

Concerning the requirements to be observed in regard to the entry and registering of arriving and out-going merchandise, and the manner of inspecting, assessing duty upon and delivering goods, the special regulations bearing thereupon are to be followed.

§ 9.

Owners of vessels which have undergone repairs at a Swedish ship-yard are, after such vessels are fully appointed and equipped, and such fact has been certified to before the custom-house direction, entitled to reimbursement of duties paid upon sails or sail duck which the owners shall show to have been used in the equipping of the vessels and to have been imported for this purpose.

Ships' stores and necessaries with which a Swedish vessel returning from foreign ports may have been supplied during the voyage, are not subject to duty in so far as they are used to supply the needs of such vessel only.

§ 10.

The following merchandise, manufactured of foreign raw material, shall, when exported by sea from a Swedish staple-town, be entitled to drawback as follows:

For 1 kilogram refined sugar; loaf, rock-candy, or slab	28.2	öre.
For 1 kilogram chocolate or confectionery, or both mixed	30	öre.
For 1 liter punch	30	öre.
For 1 kilogram tobacco, manufactured:		
Cigars and cigarettes	1	kroner.
Spun, twisted, or pressed in plugs	70	öre.
Ground, or snuff	48	öre.
All other kinds	55	öre.
For 1 kilogram colored or printed cotton yarn	19	öre.
For 1 kilogram colored or printed woolen yarn	24	öre.
For 1 kilogram textile fabrics of cotton, made of yarn No. 26 English standard or any higher number	19	öre.
For 1 kilogram textile fabric of linen	24	öre.
For 1 kilogram machine-sewed cotton or linen articles, such as shirts, collars, cuffs, &c., subject to the condition that such articles are not to be mainly composed of any fabric paying a lower duty than the one imposed upon unbleached cottons	58	öre.

whereby the following regulations are to be observed:

1. That of all above-mentioned merchandise reckoned by weight at least 50 kilograms of each, and in the case of mixed chocolate and confectionery 50 kilograms together, and of punch at least 50 liters, shall be declared and exported in one shipment this rule, however, not to apply where the merchandise upon which drawback is claimed, is exported for the supply of ships lying in the sound, under such circumstances as would entitle foreign goods stored "in bond" to exemption from duty when withdrawn for that purpose.

2. That there shall be attached to each declaration of export a sworn certificate of

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the manufacturer, provided with the signatures of two witnesses, to the effect that the merchandise is of Swedish manufacture and of foreign raw material for which full duty has been paid, and the case of colored or printed yarn or textile fabrics, that they are manufactured of foreign-spun and duty-paid yarn, and in regard to machine-sewed cotton or linen articles, that such have been manufactured in Sweden from imported, duty-paid fabrics; and such certificate shall, when relating to cotton textiles, state that the yarn therein contained is equal in fineness to No. 26 English standard, or above it; and such certificates are to be entered in the register of the custom-house of the port wherefrom the exportation takes place; and

3. That exportation shall be proved by a certificate from the proper authorities of the port of discharge, stating that the merchandise has been landed there, which certificate must be properly attested by a Swedish consul or vice-consul in all cases where there is such an officer at the port of landing; but whenever the exportation takes place in a vessel of a burthen of thirty tons or over, and such vessel clearing directly for a foreign port has been followed out to open sea by the custom-house officials and the goods declared for export under drawback have been entered upon the vessels' outward custom-house clearance, there shall be required no further certificate of the arrival of the merchandise at the foreign port of landing in order to obtain drawback upon it.

The above-mentioned drawbacks do not apply to exportations to Norway, except as regards refined sugar, punch, and manufactured tobacco. Upon these articles the same drawbacks will be granted, even when they are exported to above-named country by land, subject to the following rules for exportations by land-routes:

a. The merchandise must, in accordance with forms prescribed by the royal ordinance of July 12, 1860, concerning exports by land-routes between the United Kingdoms, have been duly declared for export at the custom-house of the point of shipment, and have been registered there and have been provided with a "goods-passport" for a point where there exists a custom-house and where entry is to be made, which passport is to accompany the merchandise during transportation:

b. There must be attached to the declaration of export a manufacturer's certificate, such as is described in the beginning of the second regulation of this paragraph; and

c. There shall be furnished an attestation from the custom-house authorities at the Norwegian point of destination, to the effect that the merchandise arrived there with unbroken seals or leads, and that it was found to correspond with the "goods-passport" as regards description and quantity.

Should any one import dutiable merchandise with the intention of re-exporting the same, whether by sea or land-routes, after having been manipulated or refined in a manner different from any of those mentioned above, and wish to obtain restitution of the duties paid at the time of importation, this may be allowed, subject to the condition that such intention shall have been declared in writing at the time of importation, and that the owner of the merchandise shall obey any rules which the custom-house direction may establish with a view of preventing abuse of the privilege granted; in order to be entitled to the benefit of this clause re-exportation must have taken place and have been properly attested within one year and one day from the date of importation.

§ 11.

It shall be the duty of every shipmaster, pursuant to forms prescribed in the first chapter of the customs regulations, to note down accurately upon his manifest his stock of necessaries, giving description and quantity, under such penalty for neglect as is provided for in said chapter; and such stores, when found to be needed for the use of the crew whilst on board, are to be exempt from duty and other imposts at the port of discharge.

Among such exempt stores may, under stated circumstances, also be included the following quantities of wine, brandy, coffee, and tea, viz: For vessels coming from the Baltic, or when arriving at any port in Holland or Göteborg and Bohus (west coast of Sweden) from North-Sea ports, Holland, England, or the French Atlantic ports, 6 liters wine, 3 liters brandy, 1 kilogram of coffee, and 1 hectogram of tea to each person of the ship's crew and passengers; and for vessels coming from other than Baltic ports, with the exception stated above concerning vessels arriving at ports on the west coast, 9 liters wine, 6 liters brandy, 2 kilograms of coffee, and 2 hectograms of tea to each person as above. Attention is called to the fact that wine and brandy cannot be substituted for each other under the above clauses, so that any shipmaster having less than the allowed quantity of the one article cannot on account of such deficiency claim any greater allowance of the other; and further, that whatever part of above-mentioned four articles is found to exceed a vessel's proper allowance under the above clauses is to be unconditionally entered for duty unless the vessel is at once to clear again for a foreign voyage. When a vessel, Swedish or foreign, arriving from a foreign port, is again immediately to engage in a foreign voyage, the shipmaster

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may, if he is found to have stores of wine, brandy, coffee, and tea exceeding in quantity the allowance prescribed in this paragraph, claim the right to note down the excess upon his manifest for re-exportation, in which case such excess of stores is to be kept under custom-house seals in a bonded warehouse or in some safe and proper place on board the vessel until the ship sails again, when the rules stated in § 42 of the customs regulations for the control of re-exportations are to be followed. Should, however, a portion of this excess of stores, on account of the prolonged stay of such vessel in a Swedish port, be wanted for the use of the crew on board, such portion may be given out according to the exigencies of the case, and the stores thus released are to be deducted from the quantity noted down upon the manifest for re-exportation.

Other ships' stores than those mentioned above may likewise, subject to proper official control, when found in quantities exceeding the vessel's needs whilst in a Swedish port and not intended for entry, be re-exported with the vessel.

Any stores of domestic production which, as shown by the outward custom-house clearance, formed part of the stores previously exported with the vessel, as well as all foreign, not dutiable, stores, may be exempted from entry.

§ 12.

No diminution of duty is to be granted upon goods damaged during transportation if the importer intends to dispose over such goods; should he be of opinion that goods thus damaged ought not to be subjected to the full duty, he may, after the shipmaster has made the proper marine protest, request official inspection of the merchandise, which inspection is to be made by a magistrate assisted by two expert and unobjectionable persons, in the presence of the custom-house director, who is under official responsibility to control the proceedings with a view to protecting the interests of the government. In case the merchandise was insured against sea-damage the magistrate is to request the underwriters' representative—in all ports where such representative is found—to be present at the inspection; the absence of such representative, however, to be no bar to the carrying on of the proceedings. If the merchandise is found to have suffered damage under transportation, the inspectors are to give a certificate to that effect; and further, after proper scrutiny of all documents relating thereto, give their attestation to the value of similar merchandise in an undamaged condition. If no objection is made to the proceedings, the custom-house director is to affix his approval to the inspection certificate, which the non-sworn members of the inspecting board may be required to subscribe to under oath. The custom-house direction is thereupon, after previous advertising, to sell the damaged goods at public auction, whereby in consideration of the goods being sold from bonded warehouse and duty-free, any part subject to ad valorem duties is to be assessed in accordance with the price realized at the auction sale, and in the case of merchandise paying specific duty, such duty is to be lowered in the same proportion than the price realized at the sale bears to the value established for such merchandise in an undamaged state; the proceeds of the sale are, after deduction of duties, to be handed over to the importer. Should the owner neglect to establish the damaged state of the merchandise fourteen days beyond the time prescribed by § 21 of the customs regulations for making such declaration (of damage) to the custom-house direction, such owner is to be held responsible for the payment of the full duty, unless he, within that time, advises the custom-house direction in writing that he abandons his claim upon the damaged merchandise, which, in that case, is to be sold at public auction for account of the government.

Proceedings to be taken in regard to the entry of merchandise saved from wrecked vessels coming from foreign ports are set forth in the fifth chapter of the customs regulations.

§ 13.

Concerning reciprocal commerce between Sweden and Norway the existing or forthcoming regulations are to be followed.

All whom it may concern are dutifully to observe these instructions.

In faith whereof we have hereunto set our hand and have caused our royal seal to be affixed. Stockholm Castle, December 3, 1880.

[L. S.] OSCAR.

HANS FORSSELL.

ERNEST L. OPPENHEIM,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Gothenburg, January 22, 1880.

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SWISS AND AUSTRIAN RAILWAYS.

REPORT BY MR. DE ZEYK, COMMERCIAL AGENT AT ST. GALLE.

The Swiss railways look with much eagerness forward to the transactions which will soon have to be made for the exploration of the Arlbery Railroad traffic; and the Arlbery Company, from which the "initiative" has to come, may rely upon a general agreement on the part of the Swiss railway companies at the convening of a conference.

The party most interested in the opening of the Arlbery Railroad is without doubt the North Eastern Railroad. At which precise point this will make its connection with the Arlbery Railroad is still undecided. The United Swiss Railroad will first open their lines to the Arlbery Railroad, and will undoubtedly endeavor to carry the freight trade upon one of their longer lines; perhaps through Feldkirch, Buchs, Sargans, Weesen or Margarethen, St. Galle, and Winterthur. Of course there will be no private, but only interests common to all, which will be acted upon. Besides the "United Swiss" the "Swiss Central" will also have a share in the traffic of the Arlbery Railroad through Basel and Aran-Gau. At all events, most of the Swiss railways will draw certain advantage of the opening of the Arlbery Railroad, because it will be attended with a considerable increase in the commerce of Switzerland in general.

As to the particular interests of any company it can be stated that no special understanding exists as yet between the "United Swiss" and the "North Eastern" railways; the freight going over Zürich Ziegelbrücke, or reverse, will, like other luggage going over the same space, be divided between the two companies.

About the extent of the trade which the Arlbery Railroad would bring to any of the above-mentioned Swiss railroad companies, no precise views are given by either of the administrations of the companies; the opinions do not seem to differ a great deal between the Austrian circles given by the press and the Swiss companies; the expectation of a general improvement of commerce and traffic being equally indulged in on both sides.

The proposals for the undertaking of the Arlbery tunnel works were to be received until the 21st day of December at noon, when they were opened, but the adjudication will follow on the 31st of December, 1880, by a commission appointed for that purpose by the minister of commerce; the works have to begin February 1, 1881, and from this day on they have to advance in the lower stulm on each side of the tunnel at least 3.3 meters per day, and the works, if the thoroughly breaking open of the tunnel shall not be more than 180 days behind the advancement of the stulm, so that on the 180th day after the piercing—which will, in all probability, happen in the middle of the tunnel—it must be finished, including the graveling.

By the regular observance of the prescribed progress in the advancement of the stulm, and in the entire finish of the tunnel, the piercing of the lower stulm will take place about the beginning of February, 1885, but the achievement of the entire tunnel—if to the above-mentioned 180 days after the first piercing, 10 more days be added for the finishing of the upper structure in the middle of August, 1885—the opening of the Arlbery Railway for the traffic would ensue in the *autumn* of 1885.

Each day's loss of the time allowed for the two above-named per-

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formances, viz, the advance of the stulm and the final achievement of the tunnel, will be punished with a fine of 800 florins, and the gain of each day will be rewarded with a premiun of 800 florins. Fines, like premiums, will be brought on account at the monthly adjustments. The approximate expenses of the whole work are estimated at 6,444,500 florins for the eastern half and 6,587,700 for the western half of the tunnel.

A. J. DE ZEYK,
Commercial Agent.

UNITED STATES COMMERCIAL AGENCY,
St. Galle, December 21, 1880.

SWISS CONSUME SOCIETIES.

REPORT BY CONSUL BYERS, OF ZURICH.

Among the interesting and certainly the most valuable outgrowths of modern communism is a society called the "Consum Verein," a society which aims at regulating and cheapening the prices of the necessaries of life. There is abundant proof that in many towns of the continent of Europe the Consum Verein has been, and is to-day, a complete success, and an advantage to millions of the lower and middle classes.

These societies, as they exist to-day, had their origin in the city of Zurich; and, as they are well worthy of imitation in the United States, I propose to give a short sketch of the earliest one, showing on what principles it has reached success.

The theory of checking the extortions of go-betweens in the matter of the necessaries of life by a union of dealer and consumer is not wholly new or modern. In practice, however, it is but of a few years' standing. It differs from communism or socialism, inasmuch as these *produce* as well as divide and consume. The Consum Society theory is not to *manufacture* or plant, but to *buy* large quantities cheaply for cash, and to sell cheaply for cash in small quantities, but to members of the society only.

Of course, individual capitalists can do this; but then capitalists expect a profit thereby, usually a large one. The Consum Society by an adding together of paid shares accommodates the needy consumer without asking a profit at all, at least none beyond legitimate expenses. Philanthropic men are supposed to act as presidents, men who require or accept no pay beyond expenses, just as philanthropists manage charitable affairs without expectancy of reward beyond the consciousness of having performed good acts.

The managers, clerks, and salesmen are well paid, as in any other business. Economy is the first principle practiced in the society. Speculation is not thought of. An ordinary business firm can be economical and avoid speculation, also; but, for its capital, it expects interest. The members of the Consum Society get their interest in the greatly reduced prices for what they eat, drink, and wear; and thousands of members being in the firm, instead of one or two, the risks are small, while the advantages are great. In the Consum Verein, every man who can buy a single share is a sort of capitalist in a paying concern. He may have paid $5 only for this, his single share, and yet have as full right to buy everything he or his family may consume in the year as if he had owned a thousand shares. His gains may thus amount to several times the cost of that one share, within a twelvemonth. The

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Zurich "Consum Verein" was organized by Carl Bürkli and 8 members of the Gruetli Verein, in 1851. The subscribed stock amounted to only 75 francs, and the first articles of consumption bought were cigars. In the month of November the number of the members increased to 19, and shirtings were purchased. The whole investment of capital in this month amounted to but 95 francs; the sale to 36 francs. The month of December produced nearly the same result.

This was the quiet beginning. With the year 1852, when French currency was introduced in Switzerland, the association entered a more public and useful career. The society advertised for members; entrance fee to be but 2 francs. On the 25th of January, 1852, there entered 128 members more, all of them of the working class, and mostly fathers of families. The sum of the stock was now 792 francs, and with these funds a more extended activity began. The resolution was taken to introduce the sale of bread, and in the month of April the same was opened. The sale of the first month amounted to 1,508 loaves of bread, four pounds each, and to 378 pounds of flour; the transactions of the whole month being 2,120 francs. The number of the members of the association increased, and, with them, the transactions. In September the sale of groceries began, and with it the transactions rose to 9,090 francs per month. In December the association consisted of 1,500 members, the transactions of that month being 38,545 francs. The association had established, too, a bakery of its own. In December, 1853, the association had reached the number of 2,330 members. Sales were made comprehending 25 different articles, including clothing. The transactions of the year 1853 amounted to 500,000 francs. The funds had increased to 38,000 francs. The energy of Carl Bürkli, who had organized and was at the head of the concern, was worthy of all praise. He managed the whole business, and acted as cashier and bookkeeper for the paltry sum of $12 a month, giving $6,000 security.

From 1853 to 1859, the number of the members remained stationary; the yearly transactions also remaining about the same.

Till 1859, sales were made only to members of the association, which, in accordance with its original design, was not a mercantile firm, but an association of consumers, with its own members only as customers. These members, for the most part, belonged to the working classes. The government of the canton of Zurich considered the Consumers Union, although it only sold to its own members and maintained this principle with severe strictness, as a mere mercantile firm, and subjected it to the shopkeeper's tax. An appeal against this measure was rejected, and then the feeling gained ground that an association obliged to suffer the disadvantages of a mercantile firm, should also partake of its advantages; *i. e.*, should sell its goods to the public in general, outsiders as well as members. If this change was important as to the tendency of the association, another alteration that took place at the same time, was equivalent to an abandonment of past principles. It was determined to limit the number of members. Feeling differed as to this new action of the society. Many of its members wished to hold on to the original faith, and gradually transform the society into a socialistic lever. Others were prepared to make of it a speculative and mercantile firm, looking to the profits on shares as their advantage. After much dissension, Carl Büerkli, the founder of the association, retired. This was in 1860. The assets of the association had reached 75,000 francs, and business transactions in the year 1,500,000 francs, a gain of 140,000 francs on the previous year. The society now, for a series of six or seven years, forgot its original design of benefiting certain classes of the public, and, in its

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eagerness to make money and enrich favorite members, ran into all sorts of speculations, forgot all economy, and very nearly failed entirely. At the end of 1867 Carl Büerkli was again at the head. The society, again without means, returned to its first principles, admitted new members, and by 1871 had 135,000 francs of funds on hand. Prices of all articles of consumption were forced down in Zurich, and the whole public felt the good result. The society had a library, free lectures, industrial exhibition, &c. It also opened a butcher-shop of its own, and a cheap lunch-house for its members.

By 1872 new jealousies arose. The old members saw a great socialist tendency on the part of the newer members, led by Carl Büerkli, and the latter was formally excluded from the society.

The association now assumed more the character of a great mercantile company, but it has prospered immensely. It sold to everybody, while stockholders were reduced in numbers. Shares that had cost but 3 francs originally were in 1879 worth 240 francs. In the year 1877, 415,000 francs of funds were divided among the 2,000 shareholders, making each share worth 200 francs. The dividend was 21,000 francs, and an equal sum was placed in the reserve fund. In the first year of its organization the society's transactions had been only about 2,000 francs a month. In 1878 they were between 9,000,000 and 10,000,000 francs per year. The eight gentlemen who organized the society in 1851 did it with the sum of 75 francs, or $15.

Similar societies, many commencing, too, with small capital, exist now in almost every town of Switzerland, while Germany has not less than 200 such societies, whose sales in 1879 amounted to some 28,000,000 marks. That many new societies are organizing every year on the continent must be accepted as proof that the principle is a good and successful one. That the extortions of many private dealers and go-betweens are lessened by this society there is no doubt.

The public can only secure the greatest good from such societies, however, when they are managed on the principle of economy, cheap sales, and membership open to everybody—stockholder and consumer being the same person. This is the original idea, and when faithfully carried out, in city, town, or village, extortion, as to the common necessaries of life, is done for.

J. H. M. BYERS, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE, *Zurich.*

NOTES.

The act of Congress, June 16, 1880, providing for "printing and distributing more frequently the publications by the Department of State of consular and other reports," was limited by the amount of appropriation to four issues; and the specification, as to distribution provides, also that the works "be sold at such rates as may be fixed by said Department."

As it was necessary to make known to the commercial community of the country the character of the publications and their value, the Department availed of the privilege granted by the above clause and used discretion in issuing the same.

The importance of the work is now generally seen, and has been attested by individual and corporative testimonials from every part of the country, with requests for a "monthly" publication, and it will be the endeavor of the Department to continue the interest thus manifested by keeping in view changes of especial and immediate interest to our agricultural, manufacturing, and commercial people.

The recent provision, by the last session of Congress, for the continuance of this work, was made too late to admit of this number being prepared sooner.

The clause directing the sale of such publication has been repeated, and it is therefore necessary to advise the public that the Department must request a remittance of 25 cents per copy of all who desire separate issues, or notification of the subscription of $3 for the twelve numbers (monthly) per year.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,
March 30, 1881.

The Department has received many expressions from the public indorsing the endeavor recently made to disseminate information of industrial and commercial relations and of the progress of foreign nations by immediate collection and publication of all reliable data through the Consular corps. Such expressions have come from all channels at home and many from abroad.

Recently the Department has received a great many letters from schools and colleges, commending the monthly volumes issued as "text books," affording much interest to scholars in general information of the present characteristics of other peoples of the world. The following, however, is given as an opinion from a commercial source, as a just tribute to the late Secretary of State:

CHAMBER OF COMMERCE, GERMANIA BANK BUILDING,
Pittsburgh, January 15, 1881.

SIR: At a meeting of the Pittsburgh Chamber of Commerce, held on the 10th instant, a special committee submitted the following report, which was unanimously approved, and the superintendent instructed to notify the honorable Secretary of State of the United States of the action of the chamber.

Respectfully, yours,

G. FOLLANSBEE,
Superintendent.

Hon. WILLIAM M. EVARTS,
Secretary of State, Washington, D. C.

[From the minutes.]

The Pittsburgh Chamber of Commerce has received the pamphlets from the Department of State containing special reports from our consuls on commerce and trade, and on our commercial relations.

Careful examination of the two numbers already issued proves the great value of these reports, and the pamphlet in which these are presented must commend itself to all who desire to avail themselves of such information, never obtainable before, so far as we know.

This chamber joined in a request to the State Department to issue these pamphlets, and to Congress to make necessary appropriations.

Appreciating the value of what has already been done, and the promise for the future, we take pleasure in recording our gratification at the result.

We believe that Secretary of State Evarts has done more practical good to the manufacturers of the United States who desire to enlarge their markets and to widen their relations than has ever been done before in this direction, and we hereby return him our thanks.

We believe that he has opened the way for our consuls not only to increased usefulness, but also to a usefulness that will make many of their positions highly honorable and important in place of being well-nigh useless.

The Department has been furnished by the consul of the United States at Halifax with the subjoined item, which was published in the Halifax Morning Chronicle, by the collector of customs there, under instructions from the minister of customs at Ottawa, on March 16:

SHIPPING CATTLE.—Steamboat agents are notified by the collector of customs that he will not permit steamers carrying cattle from this port to be cleared out, if having landed cattle in Great Britain from American ports within three months from time of shipping cattle here. This order of the government at Ottawa will be strictly enforced.

Since the above was given to the press the Department has received a telegram from Consul Jackson advising, officially, of a relaxation of the above order to "thirty instead of ninety days."

Reciprocal protection of manufacturing and "Trade-Marks" between Great Britain and the Swiss Confederation.—The following is the declaration between the United Kingdom and the Swiss Confederation for mutual protection of their trade interests, which was signed at Berne, November 6, 1880:

The Government of Her Majesty the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland and the Swiss Federal Council have, with a view to the reciprocal protection of the marks of manufacture and trade in the two countries, agreed to the following declaration:

The subjects or citizens of each of the contracting parties shall enjoy, in the dominions and possessions of the other, the same rights as are possessed by native subjects or citizens, or as may hereafter be granted to the subjects or citizens of the most favored nation, in everything relating to the protection of property in manufacturing or trade-marks.

It is understood that any person who desires to obtain the aforesaid protection must fulfill the formalities required by the laws of the respective countries, which formalities the contracting parties shall reciprocally communicate to each other, reserving to themselves, however, the right to modify them, from time to time, if they consider it necessary.

The present declaration shall come into force from the day of its signature. It shall remain in force so long as one of the contracting parties shall not have notified to the other its intention of terminating it.

Naturalization of ships in France.—In No. 3 of January, the Department published the new French mercantile marine bill, which became a law January 29 last, and grants heavy subsidies both for the encouragement of home ship-building and ship-owning. Mr. Noyes has just furnished the following *résumé* of the laws and regulations governing

owners or part owners of foreign-built ships in France, prepared by the minister of finance at request, which shows the privileges granted to the most favored nations.

[Translation.]

MINISTER OF FINANCE, OFFICE OF THE UNDER-SECRETARY OF STATE.

NATURALIZATION OF MERCHANT-VESSELS PURCHASED IN FOREIGN PORTS.

Memorandum prepared for the minister of the United States at Paris.

Sea-going vessels purchased in foreign ports, one-half of which at least is owned by French citizens, may be permitted to sail under the French flag. They must first pay the following duties:

1. The import duty, which is payable to the custom-house.
2. The transfer duty, which is payable at the registration office.

1.—IMPORT DUTY.

This duty differs according as vessels are admissible at the rates fixed by conventional tariffs or are subject to those of the general tariff.

Conventional tariff.—Sea-going vessels are obliged to pay, according to the conventional tariffs, 2 francs per ton of their actual capacity (no deduction being made for the space occupied by machinery, coal, sleeping apartments of crew, &c.). Vessels are measured by the English method known as the Moorsom method. Two copies of the pamphlet containing the decrees and regulations for the application of this method are herewith inclosed.

For the conventional tariffs to be applicable, the vessels must have been built in one of the European states with which treaties of commerce have been concluded since 1860; since they were launched, moreover, such vessels must not have ceased to carry either the flag of the country in which they were built, or that of some other contracting European state.

The contracting European States are England, Belgium, Italy, Switzerland, Sweden, and Norway, the Netherlands, Portugal, Austria, Germany, Turkey, Russia, and Spain.

General tariff.—According to the general tariff, sea-going vessels are obliged to pay the following dues:

Vessels of wood, 40 francs per ton of actual capacity, plus 4 per cent.

Vessels of wood and iron, 50 francs additional, according to the law of December 30, 1873.

Vessels of iron, 60 francs additional, according to the law of December, 30, 1873.

All vessels built in non-European countries are obliged to pay the above dues, especially those from the United States and the British Colonies, including Canada; also vessels built in European countries not included in the above list.

The inclosed extract from the official tariff (667) explains what articles are subject to the import duty, and what to a separate charge. It also states when the import duty is remitted.

2. TRANSFER DUTY.

According to the law now in force, which bears date February 23, 1872 (article 5), any sale of vessels, either in whole or in part, is subject to a transfer duty of 2 per cent. of the value (plus the additional two décimes and the half décime). This duty is payable both on purchases made in France and on those made in foreign ports. The custom-house will not grant permission for a vessel to sail under the French flag until evidence has been furnished that the transfer duty has been regularly paid. But one exception is made to this rule, and that is in the case of a new vessel, built in France or in a foreign country, *for the account of the person who applies for its registration in his own name.*

A bill, however, which has already passed the Chamber of Deputies, and is now undergoing examination in the Senate, repeals this portion of the law of February 28, 1872. Article 3 of that bill provides that "papers furnishing evidence of the transfer of the ownership of vessels, either in whole or in part, shall be subject, when the vessel is registered, to a fixed duty of 3 francs only." If, as is probable, the Senate adopts this measure, the registration office will make no more foreign charges.

As appears from the inclosed extract (667), vessels purchased in foreign countries with a view to obtaining permission for them to sail under the French flag may be

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authorized by French consuls to carry the French flag temporarily, after evidence has been furnished that they have been actually purchased. To this end our consuls issue certificates to captains, which entitle their vessels and cargoes to the same usage on their arrival in a French port that is accorded to French vessels and cargoes. Vessels may, moreover, be dispatched from the port where purchased, either to a French port, with the privilege of stopping in foreign ports on their way, or to a foreign port. In the former case, they pay the import duty and the transfer duty *on their arrival in France*. In the latter case, the owners are obliged to pay to the consul who issues the certificate: 1st, the probable amount of the import duty according to the acknowledged capacity of the vessel, and to give him a pledge, in writing, that they will pay, on arriving in France, whatever additional duty may be declared lawful and right; 2d, the amount of the transfer duty, together with a written promise to pay any additional sum that may be declared to be due.

DUTY PAYABLE FOR PERMISSION TO SAIL UNDER THE FLAG OF FRANCE.

We inclose (Sub. No. 4) an extract from the preliminary observations of the official tariff, stating the amount to be paid for permission to sail under the flag of France (511), the cases in which that amount is remitted (510), and the provisions made for the renewal of the papers (512).

PARIS, *January*, 1881.

511. The naturalization duty is as follows:

Tonnage.	Amount of duty.
Less than 100 tons	10½ centimes per ton.
From 100 to 200 tons	21 francs 60 centimes per vessel.
From 200 to 300 tons	28 francs 80 centimes per vessel.
300 tons and upward	28 francs 80 centimes per vessel and 7 francs 20 centimes for each additional 100 tons.

NOTE.—Any fraction of 100 tons is considered as 100 tons.

The specification of Register and Transfer of such property is done without charge.

Besides the naturalization duty the price of the stamp applied to the instrument (75 centimes) and that of the parchment must be collected. The price of these is 2 frs. on 20 tons and upward, and 1 fr. on vessels of less than 20 tons.

International Exhibitions.—The following exhibitions of industry and science are to be held this year, to which all who are interested in this country are invited:

At Brunswick, Germany, July 1 to October 1, an Exhibition of Building Materials, tools, machinery, hardware, stoves, ranges, bath-tubs, carpenters' and joiners' work, stair railings, and all house fixings. Full particulars will be given in No. 6.

At Paris, France, August 1 to November 5, an Exhibition of Electricity, full particulars of which will be found in No. 4.

At Altona (near Hamburg), Germany, August 18 to October 17, an Exhibition of Heavy Machinery; particulars herein.

At Venice, during the year, will be held a congress for the consideration of Geographical Sciences, travels, emigration, &c. Further particulars of the preparation of this important and, to Americans, peculiarly interesting convention will be given by the Department hereafter.

At Riga, Russia, there will be held, in the summer of 1882, an Exhibition of Artizans' Industry, further notice of which will also be given.

At Nuremberg, an Industrial, Trade, and Art Exhibition will be held May 15 to October 15, 1882, of the products and manufactures of Bavaria.

International Exhibition of Heavy Machinery.—The consul of the United States at Hamburg, Germany, informs the Department of State that an international exhibition of power and work machinery will take place at

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Altona from August 18 to October 17, 1881. Altona, which is a free port, is adjacent to Hamburg; and the exhibition will afford a rare opportunity for American manufacturers to exhibit their goods. Applications for space must be received before the end of April, and are required to be made on forms furnished by the exhibition committee. Dairy appliances will probably receive especial attention.

An Economic Council, or commission of experts, consisting of agriculturists, manufacturers, and merchants, has been established in Germany by a royal decree, at the suggestion of Prince Bismarck, to advise the government on questions directly affecting productive and commercial interests. An account of the organization of this council will be fully given in a succeeding number of this publication.

Population.—Consul-General Kreismann reports the population of the German Empire, for 1880, 45,194,172, an *annual* increase since 1875 of 11.2 per cent. Minister Kasson reports the population of all Hungary, for 1880, as 15,608,723.

Emigration.—The emigration from China to the United States is reported by Consul Mosby as 7,304 in 1880, a falling off of 1,615 as compared with 1879.

From Breslau, Consul Dithmar reports the probability of a large emigration to our country of farmers, principally, and asks the transmission of works informative to aid those of the most desirable class in finding good settlements.

From Württemberg, Consul Collin sends a valuable report on "The cause, character, extent, and the laws governing emigration in Germany," which will be published hereafter.

The Accuracy of Averaging.—In averaging the daily wages of building trades, as given by "British Trade Reports," for 75 of the principal cities and towns of Great Britain, with the rates given in one dozen "Reports of Consuls" to the United States Department of State, the result did not vary *one penny per diem*.

There is no speculation in thus estimating carefully, and it is the best test to prove the accuracy of statistical work. In No. 3, an evidence was given from a German criticism of the remarkable closeness of the statistical results of this Department and of Mr. Nuemann-Spallard, of Austria, notwithstanding such calculation was made from data derived from far different sources.

Political Economy in the United States.—In illustration of the interest with which foreign statists are watching official economic works of this country, the following extract from the "Statistiche Monatschrift" of Germany (which has just been received) is republished:

[Extract, translated from the German.]

The reports of the United States Secretary of State are calculated to attract general interest and to present valuable illustrations to the commercial world, as their importance is increased by the comprehensive questions which have recently been made the basis of the consular reports. A remarkable evidence of the great service which may be rendered by consular officers and by the analyzation of official statistics is furnished by the recent Report on Commercial Relations, which has appeared in two volumes, and which contains a comprehensive review of the foreign commerce of all the countries of the world, with very valuable tables showing the fluctuations of the trade of the principal nations.

The sources which are accessible to consuls representing the various countries at the great centers of trade are greater than to other statisticians investigating or preparing comparative data of trade.

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Such a work as this furnished by the American Secretary of State possesses not only the value of a concrete work, but supplements in various ways our knowledge of the course of the world's progress in economy.

The introduction epitomizing the general situation gives ground for the hope, based upon the commercial phenomena of the various countries, and gives the hope that the revival of prosperity since the crisis of 1873 is not based upon superficial assumption, but upon something positive. According to this, we are not to entertain the expectation that the depression and disorganization of the past period of six or seven years is at once to be converted into wealth, for the course of recovery is slow or rapid, according to the intensity of preceding losses. It is, however, certain, from the reports received, and from the subsequent information supplementary thereto that commerce and industry reached their lowest ebb in Europe in 1877 and 1878, and that the preparatory and sanitary period then began, and that a positive revival took place during the last six months of 1879.

The impulse of the revival came from the United States, and from economic conditions there, and that country, therefore, deserves the most attention of observers and of those who study the development of the world's affairs.

In the United States an abundant harvest rendered large exports possible; these large exports gave rise to a demand for return freights, and thus foreign purchases were increased all the more; and inasmuch as manufacturers in Europe were not prepared for so sudden a change, they were unable immediately to meet the demand made for iron, steel rails, and textile fabrics.

The merchant and manufacturer of Europe, from the long stagnation that had preceded, and from want of confidence, were very ready to dispose of their stock at reduced valuations. Thus it happened that the sale of manufactures of European countries to the United States increased in 1879 in the following proportions.—[Extract from the Secretary's letter.]

* * * * * * *

The history of production and trade in 1873 serves as the basis of comparison from which these deductions are drawn, and which is shown in the American report; but when the full history comes to be written, it will be found that these deductions are sufficiently clear to give a general idea of the facts.

The value of the work before us consists, not in the politico-commercial introduction, but rather in the special statistical reports which furnish for every theater of trade the value, quality, and quantity of foreign trade; specificially considering, at the same time, the part taken by the United States, and giving many practical hints as to the possibility of increasing our trade.

Commercial activity, as a politico-economic in the world, in the work referred to, is dissected according to geographical sections, a detailed statement of which is impossible here. The grand total, however, illustrates the relations of and the parts taken by the three great economics—production, trade, and consumption.

CONSULAR CHANGES.

[From February 1 to April 1.]

CONTINENT OF AMERICA.

Canada:

Clifton: John Hancock, vice and deputy consul.
Fort Erie: Harry P. Dill, consul.
Grand Bassa: reduced to an agency.
Orilla: Charles Carbould, agent.
Three Rivers: Frederick F. Farmer, commercial agent.
The name of the agency at Mill Point (Canada) has been changed to Daseronto.

Mexico:

Campeachy: Manuel C. Diaz, agent.
Frontera: Michael Girard, agent.
Manzanillo: John J. Orendorf, consul.

Central America:

Guatemala, Guatemala: William Friedman, vice-consul, resigned.
Nicaragua, Bluefield: W. G. Scott, agent.
Salvador, La Libertad: Joaquin Clemente, agent.

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West Indies:
Hayti:
Jacmel: Jean Vital, agent.
Port de Paix: Hugo Kaiser,
St. Marc: G. Jastram, commercial agent.
Venezuela:
Puerto Cabello: Hamilton H. Howard, consul.
Chili:
Valparaiso: August Möller, jr., vice-consul.
Bolivia:
Puerto Perez: Herman Wigger, agent.
Peru:
Lambayeque: S. C. Montjoy's exequatur withdrawn.

CONTINENT OF ASIA.

China:
Canton: Joseph F. Carrow, vice-consul.
Tien-Tsin: Willie P. Mangum, consul, dead.

AUSTRALASIA.

New Zealand:
Auckland: Thomas T. Gamble, vice-consul.

CONTINENT OF EUROPE.

Belgium:
Brussels: August H. W. Sneyers, vice-consul.
France:
Rheims: John L. Frisbie, consul.
Germany:
Aix la Chapelle: Ferdinand Lieck, vice and deputy consul.
Berlin: Agency at Dantzic transferred to Stettin.
Königsberg: Conrad H. Gâdeke, commercial agent.
Nuremberg: Albert Mussinan, vice-consul.
Ritzebüttel and Cuxhaven: Heinrick Tönnies, agent.
Stettin: Julius Dittmer, vice-consul.
St. Helena:
William Erridge, vice-consul.
The United Kingdom:
Ireland, Belfast: Arthur B. Wood, consul.
Italy:
Genoa: Anthony P. Francia, vice-consul.
Rome: Lewis Richmond, consul-general.
Venice: John Harris, consul, dead.

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○

COMMERCIAL RELATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES.

REPORTS

FROM THE

CONSULS OF THE UNITED STATES

ON THE

COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, ETC.,

OF THEIR

CONSULAR DISTRICTS.

No. 6.—April, 1881.

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CONSULAR REPORTS

ON

COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, ETC.

APRIL, 1881.

CONTINENT OF AFRICA.

AN INSIGHT INTO THE COMMERCIAL RELATIONS OF AFRICA.

REPORT BY CONSUL LEWIS, OF SIERRA LEONE.

I have the honor to report at this time regarding certain matters bearing upon trade in this colony and its dependencies.

I have received at this consulate Nos. 1 and 2, October and November, "Commercial Relations," and am glad to know that arrangements have been made by the State Department with consular officers for more frequent reports, and provision by Congress for the publishing and distribution of the same, believing that the result will have a tendency to greatly extend the commerce of the United States.

I shall endeavor to keep the Department advised from time to time regarding all matters of interest at this place.

We are now in the midst of the dry or busy season, but the universal testimony of merchants and traders in Sierra Leone and all the surrounding rivers is that trade is very dull, unusually so for this season of the year. Trade does not "come down" from the interior. The roads are blocked, and one tribe or clan are not permitted to pass through the domains of any other.

This never-ceasing cry of war (usually bloodless) is a great damage to trade and a source of annoyance to all those who have produce to bring down. The report this season is that "*there is war and the roads all blocked.*" It seems that this is a cunning dodge on the part of certain kings, chiefs, and headmen, to constantly be at war in order to extort blood-money from traders and the government. One "*palaver*" is no sooner settled than another commences. It is simply penny wise and pound foolish.

Sierra Leone has one serious drawback, which will always be a source of more or less annoyance, viz, *non-producing*—entirely dependent on

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the natives of the interior for such produce as easily comes in their way, as dry hides, rubber, ground nuts, benin-seed, gum copal, cola nuts, &c.

There are no manufactures of any importance in Sierra Leone, and agricultural industry is sadly neglected—given entirely to *trade*—so when the untutored native from the interior is prevented from coming to town trade to a great extent ceases, and the town proper is as dull as a New England village on Sunday; straightway our occupation is gone.

The only remedy for this will be to go to work and cultivate the land. The colonial government of Sierra Leone has ceded a large tract of land (2,000 acres) to Hon. William Grant (native), who is now making extensive experiments thereon, in growing sugar cane, cocoa, cola nuts, ginger, &c. The sugar cane grows well and the juice is remarkably sweet and fine. The only drawback, however, to this industry will be the great expense of macinery, &c., for expressing the juice and manufacturing the sugar; it is one of those industries which cannot be entered upon readily by people of limited means. All of the other articles, however, such as cocoa, cola nuts, caprah, and ginger, require no special capital, and can be sold readily at fair prices, coaco 6*d.* and cola nuts 8*d.* per pound. At these prices very large profits could be made in their culture.

The cocoa begins bearing the third year, same as coffee, and on the second year of bearing will produce from 4 to 16 pounds per tree, 300 trees to the acre. The cola nut bears the fifth year and produces from 50 to 100 pounds per tree, 200 trees to the acre.

Should the experiments now being made by Mr. Grant prove successful, there would be an impetus given to agriculture which would greatly benefit trade in this colony.

I would here call the attention of export merchants in the United States to a few facts which have come to my personal notice here, in the way of business.

In the first place, companies and individuals who put up *canned goods* of all kinds should stamp the date upon each package, or, if this be asking too much, at least upon every case containing said canned goods, in order to prevent the palming off of *old stock;* and especially is this important when exported to far-off countries where communication can only be had two or three times a year. A case in point is this: We had a consignment of condensed milk of a certain new brand, and which was nice and fresh; it sold quickly, and gave good satisfaction, insomuch that it was preferred to all other brands. But the next consignment of the same brand seemed to be *old*, unlike the first lot. People bought it, tried it, and returned it. Now, just as quickly, there is no demand, and the reputation so well acquired is thrown away by the careless, short-sighted stupidity of an over-avaricious merchant who is not satisfied with a good thing. Of all the places where merchants should not attempt to palm off worthless goods and wares not required are those places far away, where reparation is not easily made.

I may also add that too much care cannot be exercised in packing, marking, and shipping of goods by American export merchants, and in seeing that every machine, chair, table, bureau, &c., is complete in all its parts; for the careless leaving out of a single rod, wheel, &c., frequently renders the said machine absolutely useless. I know of half a dozen cases which have recently come to my personal attention, causing much annoyance and loss. I could specify articles and give the names of the merchants, but for the present refrain from doing so.

It would be a move in the right direction if all merchants sending goods abroad would mark on the box the nature of contents, or number

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the packages and have said numbers appear on the invoice; for when a thousand different packages are sent from half as many merchants aboard a vessel for a foreign port, it is no joke to be obliged to open all the boxes before you can find a certain article for which you may be in search. It would, also, greatly facilitate the passing of goods through the various custom-houses abroad.

JUDSON A. LEWIS,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Sierra Leone, February 21, 1881.

AFRICAN ISLANDS (BRITISH POSSESSIONS).

SUGAR AND VANILLA OF MAURITIUS.

REPORT BY CONSUL PRENTIS, OF PORT LOUIS.

The trade of the United States with this island is and must necessarily be limited, since the bulk of its almost only export, sugar, which is of much too high quality to enter our ports except at very high tariff rates, is taken by the Australian and Cape Colonies and Bombay, while the balance goes principally to Great Britain and the continent. Still, of the crops of 1877–'78, 1878–'79, and 1879–'80, 465 tons, 1,412 tons, and 4,273 tons, respectively, were shipped to New York entirely on speculation, but I cannot report upon the success or failure of these shipments. No shipments have, however, as yet been made during the present season of 1880.

Vanilla is the only other product of this island which is exported to any extent, and nearly the whole of this goes to Europe, a few parcels only finding their way to the United States. Prices of this article are governed by its value in Paris.

American vessels occasionally come here with cargoes, and now and then others have to "put in" in distress, this place being a harbor of refuge for all vessels trading to the East that may come to grief.

Imports of our produce and manufactures, which nearly reached $100,000 in value in 1869, were in 1878 but $80. This market is a small one, and therefore easily overstocked, but with proper management about $50,000 or $60,000 worth of American goods ought to be sold each year in Mauritius; but it would be advisable that any intending shipper should be supplied with more detailed information than could be given here, but which I should be happy to supply him with on application.

When I have made myself more familiar with the requirements of the Mauritius market for American goods I will write again.

THOMAS T. PRENTIS,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Port Louis, Mauritius, December 27, 1880.

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CONTINENT OF AMERICA.

WEST INDIES.

IMPROVEMENT IN DRYING SUGAR-CANE MEGASS.

REPORT BY CONSUL JACKSON, OF ANTIGUA.

I have the honor to call the attention of the Department of State to the necessity of an invention much required in these West India Islands for the purpose of the artificial drying of sugar-cane megass.

This article when sufficiently dried is capable of the manufacture of all the steam required at the sugar-works where it is manufactured, and when wet weather intervenes to prevent the thorough drying of this megass through the action of the sun, a serious loss is sustained through the inefficiency of this fuel and is only remedied by substituting wood or coal, generally purchased at a high rate, and frequently carted to long distances in order that the work of the plantation may progress.

At these times the megass is taken from the cane-crusher and carried on the heads of laborers to a good distance, where it is stacked, in most cases, under an expensive shed, there to remain a number of weeks, to undergo the natural heating process, but at a considerable loss of fuel power.

Now, in these inventive times, it would seem that a machine could be invented to take this megass as it leaves the rollers of the cane-crusher, pass it through, and deliver it in a comparatively dry condition ready for the furnace. The saving of time, trouble, and expense would be incalculable, and the inventor of such a machine would reap a great reward.

Any inquiries from inventors at this office in reference to minor points will be kindly entertained.

CHESTER E. JACKSON,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Antigua, January 22, 1881.

OPERATION OF MEXICAN TARIFF LAWS.

REPORT BY CONSUL TURNER, OF LA PAZ.

The trade and commerce of this port is far from being in a prosperous condition, and instead of increasing appears to be daily diminishing. All branches of business are in a very depressed condition, and dull times and little money is a general complaint among all classes.

It would seem that a better state of affairs should exist, as we have had a very favorable season; more rain has fallen than for many previous years; the mines are producing more silver than formerly, and the country has remained quiet since the revolution of November, 1879.

I can see no reason for the general depression except in the tariff on imports, the manner in which business is conducted in the custom-house, the law of the 31st May, 1879, imposing extraordinary penalties upon

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violations of the revenue laws, and the recent enforcement of an old law of "Portazgo," or law imposing duties upon domestic goods, introduced into La Paz from other parts of Mexico, which weighs heavily upon every inhabitant. The duties on imports, with the addition of the fines, double and triple duties, &c., which are imposed, raise the cost of all articles so high that the people can scarcely earn enough to give them a bare subsistence, and they have not a dollar to spare for superfluities; and the merchants are really afraid to import goods, for it appears impossible to have them so documented as to escape fines and double and triple duties. Only last month a merchant here was forced to pay a fine of $350 for some slight error in the documents covering a small invoice.

An invoice which might be deemed correct by a Mexican consul, and might pass one custom-house, will very likely be considered all wrong at another custom-house, and be subjected to heavy fines and penalties. I am confident that there is not an officer in the custom-house at La Paz who, being in San Francisco, can make out an invoice which would be considered correct in his own custom-house.

The custom-house officers appear to think that their principal duties are to put the importers to all possible trouble and expense, and to find ways and means to impose fines, and they are generally sustained by the Treasury Department. I will give an instance: A package of assorted candy sent as samples, and valued at $4, was recently sent by a manufacturer in San Francisco to a merchant here. It was invoiced "Azucar candi," which I think was correct, and I do not see how it could be properly called by any other name; but the custom-house decided that it was wrongly invoiced, and imposed duties, fines, &c., to the amount of $11.59 on the little package of samples valued at $4; and similar cases, frequently on a much larger scale, are of common occurrence.

Besides all this, the importer always has the fear that under the law of May, 1879, some little error in his invoice may not only cause him to be fined, but also imprisoned, and he really incurs almost as much risk as the smuggler, without the chance of the same profit. In my opinion the only effect the law of May, 1879, has had has been to encourage smuggling and to discourage importation through legitimate channels.

The law of "Portazgo" bears still more heavily on the people generally than does the duty on importations; but I will make that the subject of a future dispatch.

There appears to be no remedy for these things, and under these circumstances it cannot reasonably be expected that the imports of La Paz will be increased to any considerable extent in the future.

No American or otherforeign vessel, except the monthly mail steamer, has entered this port since last August, and no vessel is expected; and it appears that the foreign trade of La Paz is at an end for the present.

DAVID TURNER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
La Paz, Mexico, December 10, 1880.

COMMERCIAL CHARACTERISTICS IN NUEVO LAREDO.

REPORT BY VICE-CONSUL JENNE, OF NUEVO LAREDO.

* * * * * * *

In a commercial point of view there is a very perceptible improvement there are at least a dozen large stores that do a wholesale and retail business, the more prominent managed by Americans or foreigners with American ways; fine stocks are kept, the best of American dry and fancy goods, and large stocks of foreign goods that reach here in bond.

Nuevo Laredo is what is now termed a free port; duties are merely nominal on goods for *city consumption*. The population is from 4,000 to 5,000. Of course these large stocks of fine goods cannot be consumed here, but the facilities for smuggling are so good that the most of them find the way to the interior without all of them paying duties. Some large houses do a large legitimate business with the interior.

In a former dispatch I alluded to the fact that no record could be kept here of American goods crossing at this point and in this collection district. The merchants here are very reticent about the amount of their business.

The following figures show the amount of exports to the United States as entered at this consulate for the past five years:

1875	$206,125 09
1876	206,705 52
1877	400,425 86
1878	411,852 50
1879	457,459 84
1880	648,160 90

My belief is that these figures do not show much over 50 per cent. of what actually crosses into the United States, and I base my conclusions on these facts: It is generally conceded that the growth of late years of these two cities on the Rio Grande is owing to the excellent facilities for smuggling, and that three-fourths of the native population is engaged at it, on a larger or smaller scale. The Rio Grande is fordable at scores of places between these two cities, and for miles up and down at near intervals. I personally have seen loads and loads of American prints, muslins and other goods, leave from stores in Laredo at night, bound for convenient points to smugggle into Mexico. They are generally done up in packages weighing about 150 pounds, covered with canvass. When they reach a certain ranch, and the coast is clear, packages are strapped on each side of a mule, and they cross the river and generally reach their destination on this side. As a further proof, in many of the interior cities American prints on which the Mexican duty is 12 cents a vara sell at retail at 12½ cents a yard. It is not reasonable to believe that men who live by smuggling and have all these facilities, return from their trips unloaded; the small number of custom-house officials cannot prevent it. The Mexican custom-house requires the following force: One collector, a deputy, who is cashier, an examiner, three clerks in office, one commandant, and sixteen mounted inspectors. They have about the same territory to cover as the American officials at Laredo, Tex. The customs officials at Laredo, Tex., are a collector (deputy), one guard at river (no one to relieve him for meals, &c.), and two mounted inspectors, with a territory of 60 miles up the river and 30 miles down the river to patrol. It is no wonder to me

that smuggling is so extensively carried on; the United States force is entirely inadequate. I have often thought that if existing laws could be changed the military stationed on this frontier could be utilized, and should be, to provide escorts for patrol duty with inspectors; it would familiarize the force with the surrounding country, and would be a service easily performed by the soldiers. No one or two inspectors can accomplish anything with an organized band of smugglers. The custom-house at Laredo, Tex., more than pays the entire expense of that collection district, and I believe the revenue could be largely increased.

JOHN F. JENNE,
Vice-Consul.

LAWS OF "PORTAZGO," MEXICO.

REPORT BY CONSUL TURNER, OF LA PAZ.

The people of Lower California complain of the injustice shown them by the Mexican Government, and with reason, as is demonstrated by the fact that the laws and municipal regulations of the federal district are extended over this territory.

It would appear that common sense should teach the Mexican Government that laws and regulations fit and proper for a wealthy and populous city like Mexico would of necessity be eminently unfit and improper for a miserably poor and sparsely settled territory like this, but unfortunately common sense does not seem to be brought into action in the dealings of the Mexican Government with Lower California.

One great inconvenience, and frequently a positive damage, which results to foreigners from this, is that the seal and signature of a Mexican consul is of no value here except on a consular invoice. For instance, a merchant in San Francisco wishes to collect a debt in La Paz; he must make a power of attorney before a notary public, and the notary's signature must be certified to by a Mexican consul; but after that is done, the power of attorney is not valued here until it goes to the city of Mexico and the consul's signature is certified to by the minister of foreign affairs. The chances are that the document will be lost in its transit to or from the city of Mexico; but should it escape that danger, it will be from two to four months on its travels, and by the time it arrives here, duly legalized, the opportunity for its use has passed, and all the trouble and expense has been useless.

I will mention one instance, which, among others, has fallen under my observation. Two gentlemen came here from Philadelphia for the purpose of collecting $60,000 from the Triumfo Mining Company. They brought a power of attorney made before a notary public, his signature cetrified to by a Mexican consul, and the consul's signature certified to by the Mexican minister at Washington; but upon presenting their power of attorney to the court it was declared invalid, as it lacked the certificate of the minister of foreign affairs, and before his certificate could be obtained the property changed hands, the gentlemen returned to Philadelphia without accomplishing anything, and the money has not been collected to this day.

It will readily be understood that this alone must operate greatly against business between this territory and the United States. But the principal damage to the inhabitants of the territory results from the law of "Portazgo," or the imposition of duties on the productions of the country.

This law has long been in existence, but, until quite recently, has not been enforced in Lower California. Now, however, it is strictly enforced, very much to the damage of the people, and to their extreme disgust.

Under the present tariff, lumber, horses, cattle, hogs, and other articles can be imported from foreign countries free of duty, but if any of these articles are brought here from any part of Mexico an excessive duty is imposed upon them. Cattle may be landed here from California free of duty, but if a poor "ranchero" brings a cow to La Paz to sell he must pay a duty of $2 upon it, that is, if he brings it by water, but it is one of the curiosities of this regulation that all articles introduced by land enter free, and all brought by water pay duties, although, as I understand the law, equal charges should be paid on articles brought by land and water.

The enforcement of this law of "Portazgo" is universally complained of all over the territory, and the people evade it in every possible way, and pay the duties on their products only when they are forced to do so. It induces all to become smugglers, and I have no doubt that the habit of smuggling their own products induces the whole population to sympathize with and assist those who smuggle foreign goods into the country.

It seems as if the Mexican Government wishes to keep the people of this territory in a state of hopeless poverty, and it is not strange that the people have no respect or affection for it, and that they so willingly flock to the standard of any politician who "pronounces" against a government which they consider only exercises its authority to oppress and rob instead of to benefit them.

During this year, 1880, the territory has had nine different governors, two of which have each had two terms of office, and these continual and frequent changes, each of which seems to be from bad to worse, with the law of "Portazgo" and other oppressions of the government, render it impossible that the territory should progress, and I see no reason to hope for any improvement in the near future.

DAVID TURNER, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
La Paz, Mexico, December 20, 1880.

MEANS OF INCREASING TRADE BETWEEN BOLIVIA AND THE UNITED STATES.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL ADAMS, OF LA PAZ, BOLIVIA.

I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of your circular of July 1, 1880, addressed to the consular officers of the United States, in which I am advised that, Congress having appropriated funds for the more frequent publication of consular reports, it is expected that all consular officers submit reports which may be of interest and calculated to increase commerce between our own and foreign countries.

I have been prevented from complying with these instructions, because at first my diplomatic duties compelled me to leave my post temporarily, and then, as only reliable information is wanted, which requires a good deal of investigation and study, and therefore time, I hesitated to send reports until I had become better acquainted with the country.

This consular district, comprising as it does the Republic of Bolivia, one of the richest but also one of the most unknown and unappreciated

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countries in the world, offers particular opportunities to comply with the instructions contained in said circular, inasmuch as but seldom, if ever, anything has been written in regard to its resources, its products, its wants, or its commerce in general, by which our merchants might have been induced to open trade with this country. It is true that Bolivia presents difficulties of access; to the west the mighty Cordilleras, 15,000 feet above the level of the sea, seem to form an insurmountable barrier to communication with the outer world; and yet over these, at present, Bolivia does 90 per centum of her trade through the Peruvian ports of Mollendo and Arica on the Pacific; to the southeast, transportation over the immense distances between its inhabited provinces and the navigable affluents of the La Plata have increased the cost to such an extent that only lately a small per cent. of the trade has found its way in that direction, and this mainly because that route at least offered the security which the war between Chili with Bolivia and Peru and the blockade of the Pacific ports had destroyed; from the east, the mighty Amazon, with its navigable affluents, the Madera, Mamoré, Purus, Beni, and others, penetrate the republic in all directions, and should be its proper outlet; but again dense and impenetrable forests, for hundreds of miles, intervene between the settled provinces and the points on said rivers from where navigation is possible at all seasons; natural obstacles in the rivers, considerations of the tropical climate with its deadly fevers, and the fear of hostile Indians have impeded the march of progress and civilization in that direction; and a country, containing many millions of square miles, wherein immense forests, furnishing the Peruvian bark, India rubber, and different varieties of costly woods, where the coffee, the cocoa, all tropical and semi-tropical fruit trees, and numerous medicinal plants are growing wild; where the soil is particularly adapted to such products, in addition, as cotton, tobacco, rice, and sugar; with grand rivers furnishing magnificent power, and innumerable streams flowing over golden deposits said to have furnished the wealth of the Incas; all this country is absolutely uninhabited, and is only waiting communication with the world, through capital and enterprise combined with such immigration as has populated our Western States, to give homes and wealth to several millions of people, and make Bolivia one of the richest countries in the world.

Strange it is, and almost incomprehensible to the natives, that of the here so-called Yankee enterprise nothing is to be found. Germans, Frenchmen, Spaniards, Englishmen, and even Italians come to this country in numbers, and are here now, not as immigrants, but to control the trade which the settled part of the country offers. The rich mines of Cotosi Huanchaca, Oruro, and Corocoro, although mostly owned by Bolivians, are worked by European contractors and engineers, and their product controlled in the English market. The most prominent exporters and importers are Germans, a few English and Dutch, but not a single American merchant in all Bolivia. Telegraph lines are constructed by Frenchmen, and even the stage and transportation lines established some years ago by two Americans have, after their death, fallen into the hands of a shrewd Scotchman, and so, while the Bolivians with their numbers of Indians cultivate the soil in the primitive way of the middle ages, Europeans control all trade, and the Americans here, being without capital, can neither compete with one nor the other.

Until Americans with capital, intelligence, and enterprise come here and bring machinery with them to work the mines, which, rich as they are, have been abandoned simply for want of such machinery; until our importers and those manufacturers who at home use the raw materials

produced in Bolivia, such as cinchona bark, rubber, cocoa, alpaca, and Vienna wool, establish branch houses or send agents here rather than purchase in the English markets; until our manufacturers and dealers in agricultural implements, machinery, fire-arms, furniture, hardware, cottons and woolens send their goods on their own account to this country in competition with Europeans; until ships of our own nationality engage in the carrying trade of South America; until then the commerce of and with the United States will be but nominal and restricted to a very few articles, which no other country produces.

It is true some prejudices will have to be surmounted as well as natural difficulties; miners will have to build roads to their field of operations; agents in quest of bark and rubber have to penetrate into the wilderness and give up the comforts of society; the slow mode of transportation and consequently a slow realization on the capital invested, frequent political troubles and the instability of government, the distance from home and the high price of living, all these difficulties are serious obstacles; but, as an offset, it may also be taken into account that of all nationalities none are so welcome in this country as Americans. The property of foreigners is absolutely secure. The climate is exceedingly healthy and salubrious; our countrymen know how to surmount difficulties, and, what is of greater importance to those that would come, the capital invested and the labor and intelligence employed would bring sure and abundant returns.

I have in the above manner endeavored to give a general description of the country and my views of what might be its commercial future if any of the expressed hopes be realized.

In a series of reports which, through the liberality of Congress, may be read by those interested, if found of value, I shall devote myself to special subjects, such as the proposed building of railroads from the La Plata and Amazon Rivers; the cultivation of the cinchona tree in Bolivia, its present yield and future influence upon the quinine market of the world; the placer gold fields, and silver, copper, tin, and bismuth mines of Bolivia; its financial condition, routes of transportation, statistics, and various other subjects which may perhaps contribute to a better understanding of this almost unknown country at home, and, what is most to be desired, to commercial intercourse between the two republics.

I have seen in the New York Herald an editorial advocating a commercial treaty with Bolivia, but, as desirable as this might be in the future, I believe that the present war between Chili against Peru and Bolivia, which threatens the very existence of the latter, should be ended before any steps are taken by the government; but whether this republic will be able to preserve its sovereignty or be absorbed or divided by its stronger neighbors, the country, with its present riches and future prospects of development, will remain and should always be attractive enough to draw towards it the attention of our enterprising merchants.

CHARLES ADAMS,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
La Paz, Bolivia, January 5, 1881.

QUINA*—ITS CULTIVATION IN THE UNITED STATES.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL ADAMS, OF LA PAZ, BOLIVIA.

I have the honor to forward by to-day's mail a package containing a small quantity of quina seed (*Cinchona calisaya*) for the use of the Department of Agriculture, and for the purpose of having experiments made whether this valuable plant may not be cultivated in the southern part of the United States, where the soil and climate may be found favorable to its culture.

I have spoken with several persons who cultivate it here extensively, and for the guidance of those who may wish to make a trial I will briefly add a few directions.

The seed is sown broadcast upon a hot-bed, such as gardeners prepare in the spring for their early vegetables. The manure of the llama, for which in the United States sheep manure might be substituted, is freely mixed with the surface soil of the hot-bed, and as the seed is very light it should be slightly raked under and the surface kept moist. As soon as the sprouts appear a shade should be constructed over the bed covered simply with leaves, straw, or branches of trees, which, while it protects the tender plants from the hot sun, may allow the rain to penetrate and fall gently upon them, and it is advisable to locate such hot-beds on a hill-side. so that the water may quickly run off, continuous and limited moisture being required rather than quantities of water and heavy falls of rain.

As soon as the plant has grown to a height of from six to eight inches it is ready for transplanting. The ground chosen for a quina plantation should also be sloping, if possible on the south side of hill or mountain, as experience has shown here that those located on level land do not prosper, and steep mountain sides are here preferred. The plants are set at regular intervals eight feet apart, and it is only necessary, if not better, to prepare the soil within a foot of where each plant is placed, as I am assured that by plowing the whole field too much moisture would be retained in the soil. The plants are then slightly covered with fallen leaves or other rubbish to protect them from the hot sun a while longer, until they show a strong and healthy growth, after which all further care seems to be unnecessary, in Bolivia at least, where even the weeds are but superficially removed.

A damp, warm climate, with heavy dews at night and cloudy sky during the days, rather a hot burning sun, such as may be found in the mountainous regions of some of the Southern States, like Alabama and Georgia, where mists and threatening clouds hang over the mountains in summer and still no severe frosts occur in winter—this seems to be what is required for the cultivation of this plant; and I should not be surprised if the experiment should, under such conditions, prove sucessful, a result which would undoubtedly add greatly to the wealth and prosperity of the South.

Bolivia being in the southern hemisphere, the seasons for sowing and transplanting in the United States will have to be changed; the former, instead of in October here, should be done in April, and the latter in July, instead of January here. From these intervals it will be seen that the seeds require a long period to germinate and attain their first growth, but from all accounts, if the above directions are followed and

*See notes under Quinine.

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a little patience shown in the beginning, very little, if any, cultivation and trouble is necessary after the plant is transplanted and becomes firmly rooted and shows a healthy growth.

In from five to six years the tree grows to a height of about 10 feet, and 5 to 6 inches in diameter, and at that age the bark contains the greatest percentage of quinine, and is worth here in Bolivia from $180 to $200 per quintal of 100 pounds. When the tree has attained this size and age it is cut down close to the roots, the bark stripped entirely from the trunk and branches, and one of the new shoots from the root is allowed to grow into a new tree. In India, I am told, the custom prevails to strip only half of the tree and allow this to grow again before the other half is taken off; but by this process, I am assured, the percentage of the sulphate contained in the second growth is much smaller than that gained by the method practiced here.

The seed which I am able to transmit I have procured from one of the best plantations, and is warranted to be of the calisaya species—the best of the cinchonas. Lately, since the cultivation of this tree has assumed such large proportions in Bolivia, this seed has become an article of local commerce; so that should the experiments in the United States prove successful there would seem to be no difficulty in obtaining the necessary seed in larger quantities.

CHARLES ADAMS,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
La Paz, January 27, 1881.

CONTINENT OF ASIA.

PROVISIONS AND GROCERIES IN JAPAN.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL VAN BUREN.

I have the honor to submit the following brief report upon the foreign commerce of Japan in provisions, groceries, &c.

On account of the habits and comparative poverty of the great mass of the Japanese people, the use of foreign provisions and groceries is of course limited. Since 1868, however, the importation of these articles from the United States has largely increased, until now, of the importations last year, according to the customs returns, under the general head of "provisions" and of butter, amounting in value to $219,147.25, there came from the United States the amount of $106,022.20, considably over 50 per cent. of the whole.

The figures in the following tables, extracted from the report of customs, show the value of these importations from different countries during the year ending June 30, 1880. Under the general head of "provisions" are included all canned meats, vegetables, fruit, &c., but not sugar.

PROVISIONS.

United States	$70,189 92
Great Britain	38,614 29
France	7,277 52

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Germany		$2,177 84
Russia		100 80
Italy		414 40
China		40,614 29

BUTTER.

United States		36,031 28
Great Britain		9,834 02
France		3,431 48
Germany		4,852 38
Italy		414 40
Switzerland		2,715 86
Denmark		2 353 38

SALTED FISH.

United States		185 80
Russia		2,066 20

SUGAR.

United States: White	$35 25	
Loaf	9,701 76	
		9,737 01
Great Britain: White	4,769 18	
Loaf	356 00	
		5,125 18
China: White	975,898 19	
Brown	2,428,836 95	
		3,404,735 14
East Indies and Siam: White	36,833 10	
Brown	14,109 88	
		50,942 98

SOAP.

United Sates: Bar	8,582 77	
Scented	1,174 48	
		9,757 25
Great Britain: Bar		95 18
France: Bar	799 05	
Scented	1,182 60	
		1,981 65
Germany: Bar	892 57	
Scented	19,629 32	
		20,521 89
China: Bar	16 00	
Scented	198 00	
		214 00

CANDLES.

United States	1,156 50
Great Britain	22,793 27

It will be seen from these figures that, as I have said, the United States supplies the greater portion of the provisions and butter and also loaf sugar, while in provisions China comes next and Great Britain third.

In butter Great Britain is second, but as far as I can ascertain, the greater part which comes from England is brought originally from the United States, and worked over and carefully canned in England before reshipment.

Of brown sugar China supplies the entire importation, amounting to $2,428,836.95, and of white sugar (not loaf) $975,898.19.

Of salted fish almost the entire supply comes from Russia.

Of soap, Germany furnishes far the largest proportion.

The head of a large American firm here (indeed much the largest house doing business in these supplies in Japan) furnishes me with figures dif-

fering largely from those made up by the customs authorities. According to his statement the importation of groceries and provisions during the past year, including butter, flour, salt beef and pork, canned meats, fruits, vegetables, &c., amounted in value to $339,800, as follows:

Flour	$41,800
Butter	40,500
Pease and beans	45,200
Cheese	2,100
Salt beef and pork	2,300
Ham, bacon	6,700
Lard	1,200
Preserved meats, vegetables, fruits, &c	200,000
	339,800

Of the above he claims that the United States supplies fully 80 per cent.

As I have said in my general trade report lately forwarded to the Department, in the article of butter the United States can monopolize the entire trade with Japan, as I believe it can do with very nearly all the world, if only proper care be taken in the preparation of the butter and its canning. Our dairymen and farmers at home should feel a sense of shame that their butter is taken to England and there properly worked over and canned and sold at a profit.

The butter made near Philadelphia and in Orange County, New York, commands, as is well known, much higher prices in the cities of New York and Philadelphia than any other brought to market, for the reason that it is carefully made from the best materials, and in the old fashioned way of our grandmothers. Time, attention, and labor are given to its preparation. The utmost cleanliness is observed, and every condition necessary to produce an excellent article is obtained by care and attention.

It is certainly worth the while of our producers throughout the country to follow this example and reap the benefit not only of an increased home consumption but of the rapidly growing foreign trade.

The best tinned butter now used is that prepared in Denmark and in France. Very little tinned butter is brought from the United States. An article prepared in Boston, Mass., and tinned, is now being introduced and is pronounced excellent. Most of the importation is in tubs, either packed or in rolls.

As to cheese, those in the secret know very well that much of what is used by many of our people at home and paid for as choice products of foreign dairies, is made in the United States; and so here, the excellent and tasty cheese set upon the table, as of English or Swiss manufacture, often come from across the Pacific.

This trade may also be largely increased. No reason whatever would seem to exist why we should not produce as good an article as is made in the world, and of all varieties.

Most of the tinned meats, vegetables, and fruits used in Japan are from the United States, and while much of it is excellent many complaints have been made of receiving an inferior article. Nothing will prove more fatal to this particular trade in the east than in sending here any of these manufactures that are not of the best. The trade may be largely increased and good prices obtained; but if the complaints I refer to are frequently repeated the importation from the United States will largely cease, and the fact will have an evil effect upon other branches of our commerce with this country.

The following table shows the cost price of the principal articles laid down in Yokohama and their retail prices here:

Articles.	Unit of quantity.	Average cost in California, 1880, U. S. gold.	Exchange, cartage, and insurance.	Freight.	Duty.	Cost in Yokohama.	Retail prices in Yokohama.
Flour	Per barrel, 200 pounds	$5 50	$0 87½	$1 20	Nil	$7 87½	$9 00
Butter	Per pound	30	05	01	$0 01½	37½	50
Beans	Per 100 pounds	1 50	20	80	Nil	2 50	5 00
Peas	do	3 75	56	80	Nil	5 11	8 00
Cheese	do	14 00	2 00	1 20	70	17 90	25 00
Salt beef	Per barrel, 200 pounds	11 00	1 64	1 20	Nil	13 84	16 00
Salt pork	do	13 00	1 93	1 20	Nil	16 13	20 00
Hams	Per 100 pounds	15 00	2 25	1 50	75	19 50	25 00
Bacon	do	13 00	1 93	1 20	65	16 78	22 00
Lard	do	10 00	1 50	1 20	50	13 20	18 00
Canned meats	do	10 00	1 50	1 20	50	13 20	18 00
Canned fruits	2½-pound tins, dozen	3 00	40	30	15	3 85	5 50
Canned vegetables	2-pound tins, dozen	2 00	27	25	10	2 62	4 00
Starch (sales small)	Per pound					12	20

From the foregoing showing it will be seen how very far behind the United States is to what it should be in this commerce which is steadily growing. And this exhibit, it must be borne in mind, is, on a small scale, a picture of that which exists in all parts of the world.

With our great area of cheap and fertile lands and labor-saving machinery, with the enormous yearly increase in population, and the extension of our cultivation, with our countless heads of the finest cattle, and vast prairies of the richest pasturage, what prevents our entering in and contesting for this trade throughout the entire East? Land in England, Denmark, France, Belgium, &c., where cattle are pastured and dairy products manufactured, and vegetables, fruits, &c., raised and canned, are held at so much higher rates than that in our country that it would seem the difference in the price of labor would be counterbalanced.

Not having at command a list of the retail prices in the United States, I am not prepared to institute a comparison between them and prices here, but by an examination of the wholesale prices in San Francisco and the cost of the articles laid down here it will be found that exchange, cartage, insurance, and freight have run the cost up from 20 to 50 per cent. Whether the charges for handling and freight may not be reduced appears to me a question well worth consideration. Any considerable increase in the exportation would be most likely to lessen these charges, which now seem excessive.

In this connection it seems to me proper to call the attention of the government to the forgery of trade-marks, and swindling by the sale of spurious, and often hurtful, articles of food and drink, as of the best foreign products, openly and extensively practiced by natives in Japan. Several establishments exist at Tokio wherein the labels and trade-marks of the best manufactures of tinned and other foreign goods are prepared and the articles made in Japan, thus disguised, are sold as genuine. Gross piracy is thus practiced on the foreign manufacturer; the goods are brought into disrepute, and the health of the people of the country endangered. It appears to me that the subject is of suffi-

cient importance to be brought officially to the notice of the Japanese Government, to the end that stringent measures may be taken to put an end to the practice.

THOMAS B. VAN BUREN,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Kanagawa, Japan, January 19, 1881.

BAMBOO—HOW IT IS UTILIZED IN CHINA.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL DENNY, OF SHANGHAI.

There is perhaps nothing in China which supplies more of the primary wants of the people of this empire than the bamboo. It is applied to so many different uses that it is no easy task to enumerate them all; the list is said, however, to number at least five hundred different purposes wherein this plant is made to serve these industrious and economical people. Frequently it is made to take the place of both iron and steel. The farmer builds his house and fences out of it, his farming utensils as well as his household furniture are manufactured from it, while the tender shoots furnish him with a most delicious vegetable for his table. One writer has said of it:

> The roots are carved into fantastic images, into divining blocks to guess the will of the gods, or cut into lantern handles and canes. The tapering culms are used for all purposes that poles can be applied to in carrying, supporting, propelling, and measuring; for the props of houses; the frame works of awnings; for the ribs of sails, and shafts of rakes; for fences and every sort of frames, coops, and cages; the wattles of abattis, and the handles and ribs of umbrellas and fans. The leaves are sewed into rain coats and thatches, plaited into immense umbrellas to screen the huckster and his wares on the stall, or into carvings for theaters and sheds. The wood cut into splints of various sizes is woven into baskets of every form and fancy, sewed into window curtains and door-screens, plaited into awnings, and twisted into cables. The shavings and curled threads furnish materials for stuffing pillows, while often parts supply the bed for sleeping, the chopsticks for eating, the pipe for smoking, the broom for sweeping, the mattress to lie upon, the chair to sit upon, the table to eat on, the food to eat, and the fuel to cook it with, are also derived from it; the ferule to govern with, the book to study from; the tapering plectrum for the lyre, and the reed pipe of the *sang* or organ; the shaft of the soldiers' spear, and the dreaded instrument of the judge; the skewer to pin the hair, and the hat to screen the head; the paper to write on, and the pencil to write with, and the cup to put the pencil in; the rule to measure lengths, the cup to gauge quantities, and the bucket to draw water; the bird-cage, the crab-net, the fish-pole, and the sumpitan, &c., are one and all furnished by this plant, whose beauty when growing is commensurate to its usefulness when cut down.
>
> A score or two of bamboo poles for joists and rafters, fifty fathoms of rattan ropes, and a supply of palm leaves and bamboo mats for a roof, supply material for a common hut in the south of China. Five dollars will build a decent one.

It not only furnishes the poor and laboring classes with necessaries, but it supplies the richer classes with many of their luxuries; besides many articles of furniture now being made, which contribute so much to the comfort of foreigners, are manufactured wholly or in part from this plant, while its shoots are cut into slices, sun-dried and pickled, and which form an item in the home traffic.

In that portion of the Empire south of the Yang-tze, there are said to be growing about sixty varieties of the bamboo. Of this number, however, only five or six are drawn upon to furnish the enormous yearly demand for consumption. At Foochow, and Swatow the large size grows to the height of 40 to 50 feet and in diameter 6 or 7 inches. The largest

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variety I have seen growing is found on the Island of Formosa; its height is from 50 to 60 feet, while in diameter it is 7 to 8 inches. It is the shoots from the large variety which are so eagerly sought after for the table. The stock, however, is said not to be so useful as that of the smaller variety, as it is neither so tough nor durable as the latter.

I have been induced to make these remarks in the hope that our government might favorably consider the advisability of introducing this plant into the Southern States and such other localities as are suitable to its growth. I am confident that the benefits which would result to the country from such a course would in a few years be perceptibly felt, for a plant which has served a people so long and well as the bamboo has the Chinese will certainly, under American genius, soon expand its already broad field of usefulness.

From a small grove on a plantation or farm, a variety of purposes could be subserved during the year; for it frequently happens that the farmer has occasion to use just such a sized pole or piece of timber as can be found in every such grove. Supplied with such a plant, he would only have to select the size needed, cut it off, and it is ready for use, and the following year will find it replaced by at least two others. The only difficulty is in rooting it. After this is once successfully accomplished, however, it cares for itself. The expenses attending such an experiment will be more than can reasonably be expected to be borne by private enterprise. Upon this point I speak from experience. A few days ago a vessel cleared for Oregon—the Otago, Captain Boyd in command. By this vessel I sent twenty boxes of the bamboos for transplanting, and although, through the kindness of the captain, I had no freight to pay, yet the collecting, boxing, and getting them on board was a considerable tax.

I may add that by the same vessel I sent to Eastern Oregon, which is possessed of a climate well adapted to the growth of the peach, sixteen trees of the Pang Sao or flat peach variety. It is a delicious fruit, and is sometimes called the tomato peach. At the same time I sent to be turned loose in Oregon and Washington about 70 large Shanghai pheasants, some Mongolian sand grouse and Chefoo partridges. I have good reason to believe that these things will arrive safely and will thrive on the Pacific coast.

Should the government choose to further consider the subject of this dispatch, I will cheerfully render all assistance I can in aid of the proposed enterprise.

O. N. DENNY,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Shanghai, February 1, 1881.

THE TEA TRADE OF 1880.

REPORT BY CONSUL STAHEL, OF HIOGO.

The tea trade of 1880 has been, on the whole, profitable to producers in Japan, who have sold an unusually large crop at good average prices. But it has been unprofitable to shippers, who were led by the high prices current in America early in the year, to buy in Japan too eagerly, and find now, as the season closes, that supplies are exclusive. In consequence the losses on recent shipments have been heavy, and a large

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stock is likely to be carried over in the American markets to the new year.

Hiogo has participated freely in the trade of 1880, as will appear from the accompanying statements, numbered 1 and 2, showing the purchases and shipments in the year 1880 as compared with those of 1879. Of these shipments only 14 per cent. were made by American firms, the remainder being made by British and German firms. On Japanese account there appear to have been no shipments from Hiogo.

Under the stimulus of good prices there has been a large production of teas in Japan in 1880. The continual depreciation of the national paper currency has also contributed to this result, sales to foreigners being always for silver. The market having now fallen to an unusually low level, it is probable that production next season will be less, or that a smaller proportion of the coarser leaves will be prepared for export.

I avail myself of this occasion to call the attention of the Department and of American consumers of tea to the fact that most of the teas shipped from Japan to the United States are now artificially colored. Formerly this was not the case. In the early years of the trade, say from 1859 to 1869, the manipulation of Japan teas by the exporter was confined to a simple refiring, which was necessary in order to cure the leaf sufficiently to enable it to endure transport through the tropics, and to retain its qualities while in store. This process alone required large establishments, a considerable plant, and important outlays for labor and fuel. But the leaf was improved by the expenditure, and Japan teas were then shipped in their natural condition and honestly called "uncolored." About 1870, however, consumers began to call for a higher color than any natural process would furnish, and although this demand was long resisted by the shippers in Japan, and at some loss to themselves, yet ultimately it prevailed, and for some years past artificial coloring has been the rule, so that Japan teas, which are naturally of a blackish green color, are now made to resemble the blueish gray or grayish blue teas shipped from China as "green teas."

The materials used to produce these unnatural shades are not very pernicious, being nothing worse, as a general rule, than indigo and gypsum, but they certainly add nothing to the value of tea leaves for drinking purposes, while they do add considerably to their cost. There is therefore nothing to be said in favor of the practice, except that dealers in America prefer teas of that description. Their doing so is probably explained by the fact that in teas so colored coarse leaves may pass without detection, and this is no doubt the cause of the gradual deterioration of the quality of the Japan teas exported to America during recent years. The adulteration will probably continue as long as consumers in America buy teas only according to the appearance of the leaf, regardless of its drawing qualities, and as long as the simple secret of making the infusion is so little understood in our country.

To the Japanese, who value tea for its fragrance and delicacy, and who are careful to draw these qualities from the leaf by the use of pure water and nice vessels, the colored article which is prepared for America seems an abomination, and they naturally conclude that the quality of the leaf which is to be subjected to such treatment is not important. Hence the continual deterioration of the crop, which has this season been more apparent than ever before.

I am happy to say, however, that the American demand for the uncolored teas, known as "basket fired," has latterly increased, and it would be as advantageous to the consumer in the United States, as I know it would gratify most shippers in Japan, if this inclination to return to

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honest uncolored teas were to become general; for it would certainly result in greater discrimination in the picking and preparation of the leaf in Japan, would afford consumers better teas at lower prices, would restrict the supply to good teas only, and would revive the favor which Japan teas formerly enjoyed in the American market, as compared with the highly-colored teas of China.

Of black teas the Japanese have made but few this season, owing to the demand for greens in the first half of 1880. They have learned, however, to make them, and are likely to resume the preparation of these teas now that the production of green teas has proven to be excessive, and that dependence on the American market alone for an outlet for their teas has resulted in disappointment.

Comparative statement of the quantity and value of tea exported from Hiogo, Japan, during the years ending December 31, 1879 *and* 1880.

Destination.	Quantity.	Value.
Year 1880:	*Pounds.*	
New York	9, 539, 533	
Chicago	2, 422, 395	
San Francisco	80, 980	
To other countries	2, 167, 171	
Total	14, 210, 079	$3, 552, 519
Year 1879:		
New York	8, 848, 946	
Chicago	2, 539, 309	
San Francisco	50, 539	
Canada	2, 590, 651	
Total	14, 029, 445	3, 592, 100

Statement of tea settlements made at the port of Hiogo, Japan, from the 27th day of January, 1880, *to the 1st day of January,* 1881.

Name of firms.	Nationality.	Quantity.
		Piculs.
Monrilyan, Heimann & Co	British	24, 404
Walsh, Hall & Co	American	2, 796
Smith, Baker & Co	do	15, 511
Comes & Co	British	8, 796
P. Heinemann & Co	German	21, 932
Browne & Co	British	8, 991
Fearon, Horo & Co	do	1, 981
Mollison, Fraser & Co	do	4, 501
Jno. Gillingham & Co	do	5, 486
Hunt, Hellyer & Co	do	13, 900
Delacamp, Macgregor & Co	do	9, 159
Total		117, 457

Against 108,117 piculs during the previous year for the same period.

The above quantity, 117,457 piculs, is equal to 15,660,933⅓ pounds, of which there is a loss of weight by firing of from 10 to 20 per cent.

J. STAHEL, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Hiogo, Japan, December 31, 1880.

SILK TRADE OF CANTON.

REPORT BY CONSUL SCRUGGS.

Shippers of silk at this port have been subjected to much inconvenience and loss by unprecedented shrinkages in weight between this and the ports of destination, occasioned by the natural drying while in transit; the article exported being either insufficiently prepared or else purposely moistened before delivery to purchasers.

There seems to be no reason why raw silk, if properly dried and packed, should lose more than a mere nominal weight on a voyage of from four to six weeks' duration. But owing to the exceptional dampness of this climate foreign merchants have usually made their purchases on a calculation of 3 per cent. loss in weight, and up to within a comparatively short time this margin has been found sufficient to cover all shrinkages in transitu.

During the past season, however, the shrinkage has ranged all the way from 6 to 10 per cent., and the belief is general that this unprecedented decrease in weight has borne some ratio to the diminished profits of native dealers. At any rate it has greatly diminished the transactions at this port, since brokers refuse to fill orders involving so much uncertainty and dissatisfaction. This is especially the case with respect to that class of silk known as "Isalteens," and which constitutes the chief export of silk to European markets.

The class which has heretofore found readiest sale in markets of the United States usually undergoes a process of re-reeling and of drying by artificial means before shipment; and it would seem that it ought to retain full invoice weights on landing at American ports. During the season last past, however, even this class of silk has ceased to be an exception, and in some instances the loss in weight has been as high as 7 per cent., and seldom less than 4.

These facts have suggested the importance of some uniform method of arriving at an equitable standard of weight in all silk transactions before delivery is made by the native dealers, and of adopting that as the basis in all purchases for exportation.

With this object in view, it has been proposed to establish at this port a silk "condition house," on a plan similar to those in the European markets, the process of "conditioning" being substantially as follows:

A certain number of skeins, from a given bale or package, to be made absolutely dry by artificial means, and while in that condition their weight to be ascertained. But since experience has shown that 11 per cent. of moisture is necessary to the successful manufacture of the raw material, that percentage of weight is to be added, and the conditioned weight of the bale or package calculated on the basis thus obtained, the buyer paying in accordance therewith.

The scheme meets with universal favor among foreign dealers here; and although it has had opposition from one of the native guilds, is likely to succeed. A company has already been formed and organized, experts engaged, and a suitable building leased, so that the silk trade of Canton, heretofore so unsatisfactory and uncertain, is now in a fair way to be established upon a fair commercial basis.

WILLIAM L. SCRUGGS,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Canton, January 26, 1881.

INLAND TRADE OF CHINA.

REPORT BY CONSUL SHEPARD, OF HANKOW.

In responding to Department circular of July 1, I regret to say there is little hope of introducing new commodities from the United States into this locality. We are so far inland, and the people so generally engaged in agriculture, that beyond this line there could not be much consumption.

But the utter aversion to foreign appliances, the prejudice against any change, and the method of cultivating small plots of ground by each laborer for himself prohibits the adoption of the labor-saving apparatus adapted to large areas. But perhaps the most important obstacle to the introduction of new foreign articles is the fact that there are no foreigners engaged in the sale of imported merchandise of any kind. Formerly there were several houses in Hankow in the business of importation and sale of foreign commodities, but native innovation, acting by cheaper methods, has driven every foreigner out of the market, so that now nothing whatever is done here by foreigners beyond buying tea silk, and some few other native products, for export, with insurance agencies and the shipping of merchandise by steamer, lorcha, or junk. Hence, however desirable a foreign article may be presumed to be, and whatever chance there might be, if introduced, there is literally nobody to present it and push its adoption. Several enterprising manufacturers of various articles at home have repeatedly applied to me to find and recommend some one to act as their agents; but I have never yet been able to induce any one to undertake such an enterprise, every one repudiating the thought that there could be any compensation from it. There is no *American feeling* here, and probable profit pecuniarily is the only motive that actuates men in these outposts. Only two Americans reside here outside of the Chinese customs service and the missionaries (and the last are in Wochang), and they are not men of means, and cannot go outside of their business of shipping and forwarding. I am therefore compelled to say, with much regret, that I see no immediate possibility of introducing new foreign articles to the natives of this interior region until a great change takes place in the people themselves from causes away from us. They are so peculiar in their methods, and so indurated in their prejudices, that no one can realize the facts who has not had personal observation of them.

The cotton-goods trade still shows a steady increase in the consumption of American fabrics. My annual report closed with June 30. The immediate subsequent quarter, from July 1 to September 30, showed that 18,495 pieces of American sheetings passed through the customs here as against 8,550 pieces for the corresponding period of 1879. These all enter into native consumption, mostly for articles of clothing, and are largely sent into the far interior. As an illustration of this, 5,400 pieces of American drills and sheetings were reported at Ichang for the quarter under notice, against nothing in any previous year. Ichang is more than 400 miles further inland than Hankow, and a good proportion of the goods noted was for the Szechnen province, hundreds of miles farther.

There has been no noticeable change in other American articles here.

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Kerosene has not kept quite up to its previous increase. The trade in clocks still augments.

I greatly regret that the situation of this consulate necessitates such a barren showing for the extension of American trade, as it suggests a reflection upon the apparent disinterestedness of the consul. But it is not possible to make bricks without clay or straw, or without some substitutes for them. I shall continue to do all that is possible to extend American interests and honor, and, in obedience to the circular, report as frequently as there is anything reportable.

ISAAC F. SHEPARD,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Hankow, December 29, 1880.

AUSTRALASIA.

WOOL OF NEW ZEALAND.

REPORT BY CONSUL GRIFFIN, OF AUCKLAND.

I have the honor to inform you that I have this day forwarded to the Department of State, per steamer City of Sydney, a small package containing samples of wool grown in New Zealand, Victoria, and New South Wales. These samples were furnished me by the New Zealand Loan and Mercantile Agency at Auckland.

I have marked the price, the quality, and the name of the district where grown, upon each sample, and I hope that they will enable you to form a very just idea of the value and quality of the wool grown in the Australasian colonies.

It will be seen by the following statement that there was no wool shipped direct from this colony to the United States during the year 1879.

Quantity and value of wool exported from New Zealand during the year 1879.

Destination.	Quantity.	Value.
	Pounds.	
United Kingdom	63,167,769	$14,995,796 20
New South Wales	3,500	768 00
Victoria	49,541	10,344 00
United States	Nil.	Nil.

The New Zealand wool which found its way into the American market during that year went by way of London and Liverpool.

I have, however, to report the shipments during the past four weeks of about 1,000 bales from here to New York, via the Pacific Mail Steamship Company. This wool was consigned to R. M. Cameron & Co., New York.

Number of sheep in New Zealand.—On the 31st of May, 1879, there were 11,693,911 sheep thus distributed.

G. W. GRIFFIN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Auckland, New Zealand, January 4, 1880.

Statistics of sheep in New Zealand.

Districts.	Number of sheep-owners owning under—						Owning 20,000 and upward.	Total number of—	
	500	1,000	2,000	5,000	10,000	20,000		Owners of sheep.	Sheep.
Auckland	1,083	69	38	25	9	7	.....	1,231	453,521
Hawke's Bay	42	39	33	32	36	36	21	239	1,691,002
Taranaki	85	4	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	90	11,264
Wellington	636	220	166	93	27	20	4	1,166	1,453,533
Marlborough	368	28	21	20	13	21	17	288	1,133,312
Nelson	464	31	4	4	.....	.....	.....	503	107,661
Canterbury	1,042	151	102	76	69	55	40	1,535	3,263,616
Otago	529	97	71	74	46	60	51	928	3,580,002
Totals	4,049	639	436	324	200	199	133	5,980	11,693,911

CONTINENT OF EUROPE.

THE RESOURCES OF NORWAY IN 1880.

REPORT BY CONSUL GADE, OF CHRISTIANIA.

The local newspapers have lately been engaged in reviewing the resources of this country and the progress it has made during the past year. I have made some short extracts from these articles, which I now have the honor to lay before you.

The crops have been fair and the year may be regarded as better than the average. The quality of the grain, of which oats and barley constitute the staple, was uncommonly good and the prices of all agricultural products were better than in the previous year, and rather remunerative to the husbandman.

The crop of potatoes was nowhere abundant, and in many places they were diseased. In our locality the plant was attacked by an insect, somewhat resembling the American potato-bug, which ate its way into the stem and caused it to blight.

Rye constitutes only 6 or 7 per cent. of all the grain raised. The value of the grain and potatoes raised in Norway last year may be estimated at 90,000,000 crowns (1 crown equals 26.8 cents).

About 150,000 hectoliters of oats were exported to England during the first ten months of the year, but we foresee there will gradually be less demand for oats in this market in proportion as the import of Indian corn from America increases. About 1,000 head of cattle have been shipped over Christiania to London, and we observe that large quantities of oil cakes and other cattle fodder have been exported to foreign countries, a fact which does not speak well for the condition of the Norwegian dairies. The country still imports butter and cheese to about the value of 3,000,000 crowns per annum.

The fisheries have yielded a very large return, and of cod there has hardly ever before been taken so much on this coast. Sixty-five millions have been caught in 1880, while the annual average yield from 1869 to 1878 is estimated at 49,000,000 fish. More than 30,000 fishermen were engaged in these fisheries.

During the last months of the year about 300,000 barrels of herring were caught in the district of Nordland, and at the same time Norwegian fishermen went to fish herring on the coast of Iceland.

In Seyderfjord alone no less than sixteen Norwegian steamers and fifty sailing vessels were engaged in this fishery. The result for the

Norwegians is estimated at 100,000 barrels or 1,000,000 crowns. It must be added that the Iceland herring is much larger than that usually caught in Norway.

The year 1880 has been a crowning one for the seal fishery, giving about 20,000 barrels of oil and 80,000 skins of a gross value of 1,000,000 crowns. Fourteen vessels, mostly steamers and chiefly belonging to the port of Tönsburg, were occupied in this pursuit.

The whalers on the Finmark coast have also been very successful, having shot 145 whales. Each whale has a value of 3,000 crowns, and one of the whaling companies which for 1879 paid a dividend of 30 per cent., will in 1880 be able to pay 40 per cent. The ports of Finmark send fishing expeditions every year to the Arctic Sea, Tromsöe alone nineteen vessels in 1880. They have returned with a fair amount of fish, walruses, ice bears, and sharks.

The last year was favorable to the lumber trade, and far more so than several previous years. The quantity exported has been much larger and the prices were about 20 per cent. higher than in 1879. England is by far the most important market for the Norwegian lumber trade and took this year nearly two-thirds of the whole export. Next to England came France, Belgium, Holland, Germany, and Denmark. Norway exported in the first ten months of 1880 828,237 tons of lumber, manufactured and not manufactured, while the exports for the whole year of 1879 only amounted to 706,950 tons.

The prospects for the lumber business this year are not very good, as the foreign markets are said to be glutted with all products of wood. Great quantities, however, are being cut as well in this country as in Sweden and Finland.

The wood pulp factories, the number of which is increasing every year, have exported in 1880 25,000 tons of pulp for paper manufacture, representing a capital of about 2,000,000 crowns. The prices of pine wood pulp with 50 per cent. of water varied from 72 to 82 crowns per ton, free on board at this port. The production of this article will in 1882 probably be double that of 1880. Also pasteboard, manufactured of wood pulp, and printing and wrapping paper, have been exported in larger quantities than in preceding years.

From fourteen match manufactories about 1,600,000 kilograms of matches were exported, representing 1,500,000 crowns.

The breweries have only exported 1,300,000 liters of beer in 1880 against 1,630,000 liters in 1879, which represented 750,000 crowns.

The twenty-five brandy distilleries have produced 6,500,000 liters of 50 per cent. strength, 1,085,000 of which were exported to Germany.

The export of ice reached about 150,000 tons, 20,000 tons of which were shipped to New York in July and August, and brought about £7 sterling a ton, delivered in America. In Dublin and other ports of Great Britain ice exported from Norway was in the summer sold for $20 a ton.

The Norwegian shipping in 1880 has been a little more profitable for the owners of the large mercantile fleet than it had been for several previous years, partly a result of the higher rates of freight from the ports in the United States after the breaking up of the ring of grain speculators in the spring.

The lumber freights from Pensacola and other ports in the Southern States are in increased demand by the Norwegian vessels, which seem suitable for that trade.

The number of newly built vessels was about the same in 1880 as in 1879, viz, a little more than 100, measuring together 25,000 tons. Greater activity has been observable in the construction of steamships. Twelve

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steamers of 1,525 tons have been launched in this country to five steamers of 764 tons in 1879. Fifteen steamers of 4,700 tons have been bought in foreign ports to nine of 2,700 tons burden in 1879.

It is much to be regretted that Norwegian shipowners purchase old wooden sailing vessels abroad, probably in England, where they are now to be had at very low prices. It is estimated that about 40,000 tons have been added in this way to the Norwegian tonnage in 1880, and among the seventy-seven vessels bought we also discover two bought in America. Norway has bought sailing vessels in America in the following proportion: In 1873, 2 vessels; in 1874, 9; in 1875, 6; in 1876, 16; in 1877, 13; in 1878, 5; in 1879, 4; in 1880, 2. The aggregate Norwegian tonnage on the 1st of January, 1880, was 1,510,698 tons.

The duties counted on imports were, in 1880, 18,556,000 crowns; in 1879, 15,418,000 crowns; in 1878, 17,737,000 crowns for the whole kingdom; and the duties collected solely at this port were, in 1880, 8,622,000 crowns; in 1879, 6,599,000 crowns; in 1878, 7,652,000 crowns.

That the duties reached last year so high a figure may be ascribed to the large sum collected last June for the duty on tobacco, imported previously to the increase of duty on that article.

Money has been easy during the whole year, and the rate of discount has never exceeded 5 per cent. per annum.

GERHARD GADE,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Christiania, January 8, 1881.

PLEURO-PNEUMONIA IN CATTLE OF SWEDEN AND DENMARK.

REPORT BY CONSUL OPPENHEIM, OF GOTTENBURG.

I have the honor to inform the Department that Dr. Lindgwist, the veterinary appointed by the Swedish health bureau to investigate the alleged cases of pleuro-pneumonia among some Swedish cattle recently exported from Sweden to Denmark, has now published an official report upon the subject. As stated in my dispatch No. 55, pleuro-pneumonia of the true type was found among the Swedish cattle brought to Holbach, in Denmark, and among them only. For further certainty, 27 Danish cattle that had been kept in the same stables with the sick Swedish herd were slaughtered, but none of the characteristic signs of the disorder were found in them. Upon both points, viz, the existence of the disease among the Swedish herd and its absence from the Danish cattle, the evidence from Swedish and Danish veterinaries is in absolute agreement.

Dr. Lindgwist immediately thereafter visited the Swedish districts from which the infected cattle originally came, with a view to finding out if the disease existed there now, or if any cases of it had been known previous to the shipment of that herd. His inquiries were apparently carried on with great conscientiousness, and had the efficient co-operation of the local officials, but no facts were brought forward tending to establish the existence of the disease in any of the districts visited. That a Swedish owner of cattle supposed to be suffering from any kind of contagious disorder should keep this fact secret is not very likely, considering that such owner under existing statutes is, upon applications to certain officials residing in every village, entitled to have

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the nearest veterinary called in at public expense; such cattle as are then found afflicted with any contagious disease, or whose symptoms are obscure enough to require post-mortem examinations to establish a conclusive diagnosis, are to be slaughtered at once, and the owner is indemnified by the state to the full extent of their value as healthy cattle. When the existence of the disease in any of the animals has been conclusively established, the balance of the herd, no matter how sound, are to be slaughtered also, and the owner indemnified likewise. That under such provisions no cases of contagious disease should have been made known to the authorities of Jon-Köpings Län and adjoining districts during the last year, is taken by the doctor as conclusive evidence that such disorder does not, and has not lately existed in these districts, and this, coupled with the acknowledged fact that the cattle in question were in apparent health up to the time of their leaving Sweden, leads him to conclude that these cattle became infected with the germs of the disease after their arrival in Denmark.

It may be stated that the last officially-known occurrence of pleuropneumonia in Sweden took place in 1857, having been introduced by some Ayrshire cattle from Scotland, when it was at once stamped out by the slaughtering of all the cattle in the locality.

Both Sweden and Denmark export cattle to England in considerable quantities, and the fear of having this trade interfered with by the English health authorities has made either party in the case somewhat anxious to throw the suspicion of infection upon the other. The public prints on both sides of the sound have been carrying on a controversy on the subject for some weeks, and have, as could be expected, generally taken the view that the disease was exotic in its origin. The facts as stated above and in my communications of the 7th instant are substantially all that has thus far come to light.

It is my opinion that under the circumstances shippers of skins from both countries should be required to furnish certificates showing that such skins were stripped from sound animals only, and come from districts free from any suspicion of cattle plague.

ERNEST L. OPPENHEIM,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Gothenburg, January 27, 1881.

EXPORT OF SWEDISH SPIRITS.

REPORT BY CONSUL OPPENHEIMER, OF GOTHENBURG.

I have the honor to inform the Department that the export of spirits from this country reached very unusual proportions last year. Considering that spirits are one of our export staples, the figures may be of interest to the American public.

The total production of Sweden for the year 1879 was 14,184,368 kanna,* of the normal strength of 50 per cent. at a temperature of 15° Celsius; for 1880 the production is stated at 15,638,008 kanna. Exports for the last five years were as follows: 1876, 1,000 kanna; 1877, 900 kanna; 1878, 41,200 kanna; 1879, 54,000 kanna; 1880, 2,387,000 kanna, which figures sufficiently show the novelty and suddenness of the movement referred to.

* The Swedish kanna = 0.6912 wine gallon.

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The exports were almost entirely to Germany, chiefly to the free ports, however, making the ultimate destination of the spirits somewhat doubtful. The Swedish excise-tax is one crown per kanna of proof-strength to be refunded upon proper proof of exportation. The minister of finance has recently called upon the Riksdag for an appropriation of 2,380,000 kroner to pay the drawbacks due upon the export of the past year; in the budget estimates 25,000 kroner had been allowed for that object.

ERNEST L. OPPENHEIM,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Gothenburg, February 4, 1881.

TRADE MUSEUMS AND CONSULAR INFLUENCE.

REPORT OF CONSUL RYDER, OF COPENHAGEN.

I have the honor to transmit subjoined a report on trade museums and consular influence in connection with these. It would appear as though we have in latter years commenced to recognize the great importance for our country to have a commercial community which is not only enterprising, but which, at the same time, is endowed in no slight degree with an amount of intelligence, and that we purpose to make improvements in this direction. But in order that full benefit may be derived from the information that can thus be harvested, it is not only desirable but necessary that at the same time and in other ways everything should be done to further the object in view.

In this, as well as other questions of similar kind, it is always advisable to turn to other parts of the world where similar efforts are being made. Good and useful reports in reference thereto may be found both in the French and German papers. I would especially draw attention to an article on the newly-established trade museum in Brussels, which has been described by a well-informed writer. It may be seen with what attention the Germans follow the steps taken by their neighbors, the industrious Belgians. The Belgian Government has erected a museum of this description, which is placed in connection with all the Belgian consulates in foreign countries, and whose object it is to assist in extending and supporting the trade of Belgium. That an institution of the nature hereafter described must have a great influence as a means of improvement for commercial branches will be acknowledged by all experienced business men. Specially will speculation, with the aid which it thus afforded, without disproportionate expenses to each separate individual, move with much greater boldness and safety, and will be enabled to launch out into a much broader international sphere.

Belgium, as will be seen, has taken the first step, and Germany will doubtless not be the last nor only country to follow this example. It might therefore be desirable that men of experience at home take this matter in hand and investigate it thoroughly. In case that it was shown to be of service for such purposes, it would, perhaps, be worth the trial, while regulating everything according to our conditions, thus to make full use of our consular service, which would exercise an important influence in connection with an eventual trade museum.

The instructive article of which mention has been made is substantially as follows:

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A movement which in the later times has taken place in social-political questions has brought the subject of a greater extension and better organization of Germany's foreign trade and commercial connections to be of frequent debate and difference of opinion. The protection which has been afforded to the German South Sea trade, the assistance which manufacturers obtained at the exhibitions in Philadelphia, Sydney, and Melbourne, and the treaties of navigation and commerce which have been made with many trans-Atlantic states, show the lively interest taken by the Imperial Government in the spread and advance of trade and intercourse between foreign states and the country's interior.

Nevertheless, neither the moral or material support, nor the opportunities which a largely developed intelligence in connection with the wide-spread capitals placed at the disposal of these interests, have so far succeeded in giving to the foreign trade of Germany that universal stamp which her commercial flag with justice might demand from its large expanse, nor has it given to Germany that share of the world's trade which belongs to it as a result of its country's power and of its sources of production.

In the later times an agitation has sprung up which has chiefly had in view the promoting the export trade of Germany. As the best means thereto, we may first mention the greater development of the German commission firms having large capital, which confine themselves to certain branches of goods and produce, and thereafter in establishing trade museums. These should afford an exhibition place for those concerned where samples of all kinds of raw produce and manufactured articles could be collected. There should thus be collected and grouped, according to the decision of competent judges, in a comprehensibly arranged system, all kinds of raw produce, German as well as foreign, which are of mercantile value, or might obtain such through closer examination; furthermore all half or whole manufactures of home make which are manufactured in sufficient quantities and of such quality as could be exported to foreign countries; and lastly all half or whole manufactures which Germany receives from abroad.

With such a collection, two objects should be obtained: partly, a clear idea of what Germany with advantage can import from abroad; partly, what manufactures we have use for, with a detailed description of the forms, sizes, and qualities which are preferred; further, how the packing and style should be; what are the conditions of purchase or sale; what are the terms of credit; to what extent the German bank and bill business is engaged in financial transactions between the two countries, &c.

Belgium has made a praiseworthy beginning in founding such an institution and has already reaped general acknowledgment on this account.

The Belgium trade museum consists of three distinct divisions, which, from their very nature, have two distinct objects in view. On the one hand they should open up new markets and places of sale for the trade and manufactures of the country and extend them at the same time. On the other hand, they should open out goods and solid sources for obtaining supplies and direct commercial communications and relations, keeping them at the same time informed of all other countries' productions which could be adapted to consumption or manufacture. The means by which we hope to arrive at this goal is through consular reports from abroad, to be made periodically, as also such reports from home chambers of commerce which, in a condensed form, give a description of the home country's economical condition and requirements.

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Furthermore, there are collections of all necessary articles which are imported from abroad at all the Belgian consular districts, besides a collection of all articles which, from any consulate, are proposed to be brought direct to Belgium.

The government expects, with the aid of this organization, to have done its best to point out to the manufacturers and commercial community the existing relations in the trans-Atlantic countries, as also facilitate commercial undertakings between the consumers and producers in these countries. The consular reports, which are printed as speedily as posssible, are worded in such manner that they immediately applicable to practical business life. They contain all necessary descriptions of the price and kinds of goods in the different markets. They further detail a respective account of ships' movements in the different ports, while they at the same time treat of the manufactures, agriculture, and mining works of each country. We obtain at the same time an insight of the neighboring countries, customs and commercial relations, their international treaties, their system of communication with special details of freight lists and tariffs, exchange, currency, as also measures and weights for the different articles to which the producers' and traders' attention may be drawn, so that the first-named may be put in the position to form a regular and lasting connection with foreign countries.

In this manner it is sought to induce home manufacturers and traders to make use of the leading points offered to them, and that they should see that their goods which are intended for export are in close *rapport* to the sample pieces.

While it is of consequence for Belgium's foreign trade, that the home manufacturers should be made closely acquainted with the peculiarities and demands of foreign markets, so it is of equal importance that the kingdom's representatives abroad should be kept in constant knowledge of Belgium's sources of produce, both in technical and economical branches, so as to be in a position to reply to all questions that might be made to them by foreign traders or manufacturers.

Commercial circulars and prices-current from the largest and most important manufacturing establishments are forwarded to them, so that they may be enabled to give short descriptions of the mode of manufacture, the nature of the raw material, and its use. These notices are accompanied by collections of goods—samples from all those branches of industry which may be considered as being specially sought after in the Belgian consular districts of Cochin China, Tunis, Cairo, Tripoli, China, Japan, Sandwich Islands, and India. Each sample is provided with a mark, denoting its homestead, the eventual customs duty, and marked value. In order to introduce a regular system in these commissions to the consulates, and at the same time protect the interests of the different firms, the chambers of commerce act as mediators between them in arranging the required entries and giving their opinions of the articles delivered for export. These consular and chamber of commerce reports form the first division of the museum.

To meet the competition from the exporting countries the Belgium Government has instructed its representatives to send in samples of all those articles which are imported into their districts from foreign countries and which might become objects of remunerative transactions on the part of Belgium. Such a collection in six groups, with numerous subdivisions, form the second part of the museum; and here the home manufacturer can thus, for example, ascertain what description of woolen stuffs, what colors and qualities are demanded in the different quarters of the globe, and what are the requirements in the outer world for the

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silk, leather, glass, and paper industries, &c., as regards style, patterns, and details. This second division, as will be observed, makes the home producer acquainted with the tastes of the exporting countries; he is informed of the prices which are paid elsewhere; and thus obtains a ruling guide if it can remunerate him to forward similar goods to the one or the other market.

A third division of the museum contains, lastly, samples of all the goods which Belgium receives from all the consular districts; full accounts of their origin, manufacture, the local value, and transport are attached to each article, so that the merchant and manufacturer may be supplied with full information.

This collection, which was to be seen in the Exhibition at the Palais de l'Industrie in Brussels, closed in October, is now arranged in the museum and open to the public.

HENRY B. RYDER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Copenhagen, January 12, 1881.

A FIELD FOR AMERICAN PRODUCTS.

REPORT BY CONSUL RICHMOND, OF BELFAST.

In obedience to the circular from the Department dated July 1, 1880, received September 8, 1880, calling for occasional special reports on subjects connected with the extension of the commercial interests of the United States, I have the honor to submit the following sketch of the consular district of Belfast as offering a promising future field for a large American trade when the existing difficulties are removed which now prevent its being directly cultivated.

The consular district of Belfast includes the greater part of eight or nine counties forming the province of Ulster, covering an area of some 7,800 square miles, and inhabited by an active and industrious population of nearly two millions.

In the agricultural districts farming is carried on according to the most approved methods; the fields are in a high state of cultivation, and much labor-saving machinery is employed. Coal mining exists to some extent, and the fisheries employ a large number of men.

The manufacture of machinery for the spinning and weaving of flax is an important interest, and the machinery is exported in large quantities to various European nations, and to some extent to the United Sattes.

Iron ship-building employs in the town of Belfast some 3,000 hands; and here some of the most noted of the Atlantic steamers were constructed.

Brewing, the distilling of whisky, the manufacture of ginger ale and aerated waters, glass-making, saw-mills, lime works, salt work, brick-kilns, tan-yards, flour, corn and starch mills, the curing of hams and bacon, the manufacture of felt and of artificial fertilizers, are among the prominent industries of the district. But the greatest of all the mechanical industries of this section is the manufacture of linen in its various branches.

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The total value of exports from this consular district for the year ending September 30, 1880, was $9,415,832.81. Of this amount the value of the exports of linens, yarns, flax, &c., was $9,134,741.92. Of this, as of all of the manufacturing interests of the province of Ulster, the town of Belfast is the center, and in it is situated some of the largest of them all. It has now an estimated population of over 230,000, an increase of some 50,000 over the census of 1871. It has a fine harbor; the towns and villages for fifty miles around are its tributaries; some 1,500 houses are annually erected, and the evidence of thrift, industry, enterprise, and accumulating wealth are everywhere apparent. With a large and active population, and so closely connected by business interests with the United States, it might be expected that this district would be a large importer of articles of American manufacture, as well as it is now of the great staples of wheat, corn, and petroleum. It is true that many of the manufactured articles and machines of America are used in this district, but they come almost altogether by the way of Liverpool; there is one line of steamers only (the Unicorn) coming at irregular intervals from New York. With that one exception steam communication, as it exists now, serves only for the shipping of goods *from* this district; the only line of steamers (State line) calling here for freight on the outward voyage not touching on the return, so that buyers of American production are compelled to order these through the agencies in England.

Since my appointment to this consulate, I have had many letters from American manufacturers asking to be placed in communication with the leading houses in their line here. This I have done; but the steady and permanent increase of direct business must necessarily be limited by the inadequate means of transportation. Were steam transportation direct and regular, there can be no doubt that American trade would be largely increased.

While writing this dispatch the agent of the Ulster Steamship Co. Belfast, called at the consulate and informs me that it is the present intention of the company to put upon regular service between this port and New York, a new steamer of 3,500 tons they are now building in the Clyde.

LEWIS RICHMOND, *Consul.*

U. S. CONSULATE,
Belfast, October 28, 1880.

AMERICA AS A COMPETITOR OF IRELAND IN BRITISH MARKETS.

REPORT BY CONSUL BROOKS, OF CORK.

The geographical relations of Ireland with the rest of the United Kingdom are such as to suggest that nature designed this country to be a source of agricultural supply for England, no matter what the political relations of the two islands may be. But it appears that the concentration of commerial and financial power in England, together with her political predominance, have subjected the lesser island to many inconveniences and deprivations, if not oppressions, which serve as handicaps upon Irish rivalry with other producing countries in supplying the English markets.

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The mere fact that all commercial exchange in this country, bank accommodations and financial transactions generally, hinge upon London and the Bank of England, would account for this; for thereby the profits of practical management of steamships plying "across channel," the control of transportation, and the supply of necessary capital for the development of business enterprise, are secured to England.

To illustrate this meaning and to show the utter subserviency of this country in its financial affairs, it is only necessary to explain that drafts, sight or otherwise, payable in the United States, are not directly negotiable here, but are invariably sent to London to be sold before the negotiator can realize their full value. And, further, none of the transatlantic steamships carrying freight from America to England are in the habit of breaking bulk, *i. e.*, opening their hatches and discharging any portion of their cargoes at any Irish port, and they all pass Queenstown, the port of Cork, stopping long enough to discharge mails and disembark passengers. The steamships themselves are understood to object to the delay which such a partial discharge of cargo would occasion; but the fact is that they would be subjected to extra expense, more proportionately, as I am informed, than would be charged under similar circumstances in the American coastwise trade, if they were willing to break bulk here. And this rule works both ways. That is, the outward-bound steamers are prohibited from taking cargo on board, except to a limited extent, after having cleared from Liverpool, although in point of fact they do not receive their last official British inspection (medical) and clearance certificate (also medical) until they are ready to leave this harbor. The result is that Irish exports to America are weighted with the additional expense of transportation to England before final shipment to their ultimate destination. At the same time Irish imports from America are similarly weighted before they reach their final destination.

This combination, it is plain to be seen, is decidedly to the advantage of England as against both Ireland and America; for the evident reason that it permits English products to reach America at less cost for transportation than Irish, and by the same rule also permits English products to reach Ireland with the simple cost of transportation "across channel," while American goods pay for the entire transatlantic shipment to Liverpool, and then pay the "across channel" charges; *i. e.*, American goods pay for crossing the channel twice.

It is true that the Irish people do not now appear to be very large consumers of American products, for the goods they consume are included in entries of imports in the British custom-houses. But the fact is, there are very few important shops, stores, or warehouses of any kind devoted to general commerce in Ireland, in which American goods of one description or another cannot be found, and it is safe to say that with direct transportation between America and Ireland, or with the abrogation of the extra "across-channel" transportation, this traffic in American products would be trebled. But the peculiar significance of this condition in its relations to American commerce, resides in the fact that freight rates from Ireland to England are extravagantly high—almost as high, and in some instances quite as high as from New York to Liverpool. The result is, that America, in competing against Ireland for supremacy in the English markets, appears in the contest on almost equal terms.

The cheapest rates per ton from Cork to Liverpool for bulky freight, for example, are from $3.37 to $3.50 per ton, while I have known in-

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stances where $5 per ton was charged. On the other hand the average rate of freight from New York to Liverpool is from $4.50 to $5 per ton.

These figures show the anomalous fact that it costs almost as much to send Irish goods, per export to America, to Liverpool, as it does after they arrive at the latter port to send them to New York, for westward-bound freights on ocean steamers, almost always sailing empty for New York, are cheaper than from west to east, and it will be noticed right here that direct transportation from Ireland to America would permit the sale of Irish goods in the latter country at a rate cheaper than now by the exact sum charged for their transportation to England for reshipment.

The business moral, so to speak, of all this, is that America is in fact the greatest rival Ireland now has in English markets. Her beef, pork, and mutton compete with Irish beef, pork, and mutton, and do it so successfully that American beef, hams, and bacon are oftentimes shipped from England to Ireland and sold in the Irish markets alongside of the native product, sometimes cheaper than the latter. And the truth is that, with the exception of native ham and bacon, a local taste for which exists on account of climatic or indigenous results in methods of curing, the people generally prefer the American article.

E. P. BROOKS,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Cork, Ireland, February 16, 1881.

SHIP-BUILDING AND THE TONNAGE MARKET OF LIVERPOOL.

REPORT BY CONSUL PACKARD.

In reply to the Department circular of the 1st July, 1880, I have the honor to make the following report of the ship-building trade and tonnage market of Liverpool.

During the past year (1880) shipbuilding on the Mersey has been tolerably brisk, notwithstanding the depression in many other branches of business. The building of tonnage the first part of the year was dull, owing to the large contracts made in the three last months of the previous year and the attending high prices of iron.

The falling off in the demand for iron from the United States during that period caused corresponding fall in the price of shipbuilding material, and builders were enabled to purchase at rates which allowed a marked reduction in the price of tonnage, so that in June and July vessels were contracted for at prices fully as low as any which ruled during the previous year. In June contracts were made for large iron sailing ships of the highest class at $52.32 to $54.75 per ton net register, and steamers (including engines of the best description and ample power) at under $48.67 on their dead-weight capacity. This continued until quite recently, when builders found themselves so well supplied with work that a marked increase in price was demanded.

The amount of work now on hand it is believed will find employment for all the ship-building yards far into the present year (1881). Upon good authority it is stated that there is now contracted for in the United Kingdom vessels to the aggregate of 650,000 tons.

To account for this, however, several facts must be borne in mind:

1st, the tonnage built in 1879 was fully 100,000 tons less than in 1878; and, 2d, the continued success attending the importation of live cattle and dead meat from the United States and Canada has created a demand for vessels commensurate with its dimensions, and the admitted profitableness of the trade has consequently necessitated the construction of vessels specially adapted by size and ventilation for it.

An equally important adjunct is the enormous import of cereals. In the next place, the losses this year (together with casualties) have been quite unprecedented, amounting, it is said, to over 300,000 tons absolutely lost.

The demand for second-hand steamers, especially for continental account, is reported as being very good. A noticeable feature has been the demand for first-class British steamers, on time charter for long periods, on American account, for mail and foreign service.

The continued building of first-class, but plain, serviceable cargo boats has been one of the leading features of the year. Under good management and with coal at present prices these boats, being specially built, are reported to be opening up profitable trades in quarters new to steam of this type.

In iron sailing-ships a brisk business has been done to supply the demands of this market. The new ships are mainly of large tonnage, and numerous contracts have been made at prices ranging from $55.96 to $61.32, but to-day similar ships from $61.32 to $63.26, dependent on specifications and builders. Even at the last-named figure these ships, combining every good quality which skill and experience can suggest, are said to be profitable investments.

In second-hand sailing-ships there has been an exceedingly good demand, more tonnage than usual having changed hands at prices fully $9.73 to $17.03 over those ruling last year. Ships twenty to thirty years old realized from $34.07 to $38.93, and those sixteen to twenty years old from $38.93 to $46.23, while younger ships have been sold at from $48.67 to $53.53, varying in ballast requirements and general good condition. The old British and colonial build are reported by the trade to have met with readier sales than at any time during the past few years, and there is said to be no difficulty in getting fair prices for them.

The use of steel in building, though chiefly confined to steamers, has greatly increased, and those who have given it a fair trial are quite satisfied with the result.

The thoroughly sound trade which has distinguished the year is likely to continue for a while, and, with the freight market remaining fairly good, the present healthy tone in shipping circles seems to be justified and warranted.

The following statement, furnished by the board of trade, gives the number and registered tonnage of the vessels built within this consular district during the year 1880:

Port.	Composite.		Iron.		Steel.		Wood.		Total.	
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
Liverpool	....	.....	19	16,081	6	1,156	3	58	58	17,295
Fleetwood	....	.....	...	.....	....	.....	2	86	2	86
Barrow	5	385	6	7,761	1	553	....	.....	12	8,699
Preston	....	.....	5	527	....	.....	1	80	6	607
Runcorn	....	.....	...	.....	3	508	4	333	7	841
Total	5	385	30	24,369	10	2,217	10	557	55	27,528

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The following statement gives the January prices of screw steamers, all of 100 A 1 class, completed and ready for sea, and suited to the trade indicated:

Trade.	Gross registered tonnage.	Horse-power.	Speed (knots).	Consumption of coal (tons).	Price per registered ton.
Atlantic; large cabin accommodation	8,000	1,400	18	120	$126 53
Do	5,000	700	14	60	116 80
Atlantic; cargo	3,600	400	12	35	97 33
Do	3,600	300	10	28	77 86
General; cabin accommodation	2,000	250	12	24	97 33
Cargo	2,000	160	9	16	77 86
Cabin accommodation	1,000	120	11	11	97 33
Cargo	1,000	90	8	7	82 73

STEPHEN B. PACKARD,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Liverpool, February 15, 1881.

COFFEE-HOUSES AS STIMULANTS OF TRADE IN BIRMINGHAM.

REPORT BY CONSUL KING.

The establishment and success of an enterprise which has had as one result a marked reduction in the amount of intemperance seems to me to be of sufficient importance to warrant me in calling your attention to it.

The Birmingham Coffee-House Company, limited, is one of a number of similar companies now to be found in successful operation in most of the large towns of England. I believe they have all been financially prosperous, but I have no actual knowledge regarding any but this local company.

It was established three or four years ago, but I think was not in active working much before 1879. I believe it is disputed whether the present plan was originated here or in Liverpool. However, the idea was that an attempt should be made to establish houses for the sale of non-intoxicating drinks, which should be made as brilliant, and attractive, and cheerful in appearance as the gin palaces which they hoped to rival. The chairman of this company, an active philanthropist, has told me that some years ago another attempt was made to start coffee-houses, but the walls were covered with texts of scripture, prayer-meetings were held constantly, and appeals were made to the "lower classes" and "British workman" to come, and those were exhorted to come. The results of that experiment were not satisfactory to its projectors.

The present company simply undertakes to give the general public opportunities of getting refreshments that are not spirituous in as easy, speedy, pleasant, and agreeable a manner as they can get their gin or beer. They have as much glitter and splendor as their rivals, and they are managed simply as a business matter. No attempt is made to enforce any religious or political opinions on their customers. No claim

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is made especially upon any one social class. Customers who pay and behave themselves are always welcome, and every legitimate means are used to induce them to come. The rooms are comfortably warmed and brilliantly lighted, newspapers are supplied, and marble-topped tables, large mirrors, shining glass and glittering chandeliers attract the eye.

The company was started with 40,000 shares, at 10*s.* each, of which 12,566 only have been issued and paid up. According to the annual report, just made, there are now seventeen coffee-houses in successful operation in Birmingham, and the company last year had from 100,000 to 140,000 business transactions weekly, varying from a penny upwards. This may be said to represent an average of 20,000 daily during the six working-days of the week, and many of these 20,000 customers would almost certainly have drank spirits if these coffee-houses had not been available.

The mayor of Birmingham has very kindly furnished me with some valuable statistics in regard to drunkenness in the town during the past few years, and I venture to refer to them here, as they seem to bear testimony to the usefulness of the coffee-houses. In doing so I quote the mayor's letter on the subject:

The police return is for twelve months ended September 29, not December 31, and is for the number of persons charged with (A) being drunk and drunk and disorderly, and (B) with other offenses committed whilst in a state of drunkenness; and is as follows:

	1880.	1879.	1878.	1877.	1876.
A	2,218	2,428	2,851	3,727	2,834
B	2,426	2,715	3,014	3,632	3,044

You will observe that in both cases 1877 is the maximum year, and that the decrease is since then. The total number of cases summarily disposed of by the magistrates during the last five years was greatest in 1878, the following being the figures:

1880	13,589
1879	14,475
1878	16,552
1877	16,015
1876	16,551

My own opinion is that while the coffee-houses must have had some considerable effect in diminishing drunkenness, yet that the diminution is also in a large measure due to the depression in trade. I should be glad to think this view is incorrect; but it is borne out by the latest returns which for the last month or two have shown a tendency to increase apparently corresponding with the slight improvement in trade.

These facts are to me very interesting, for whether the mayor's opinion be correct or not, his position and experience give it much weight; but in any case the fact remains that, for some cause, ever since the coffee-house company has rendered it possible for the people to procure non-intoxicating refreshment if they wish to do so, there has been a very marked diminution in crime.

In addition to the ordinary coffee-house business the company, having found that the high price of non-intoxicants worked against them, undertook to make its own aerated waters, with a result of supplying the coffee-houses and other customers with soda water, ginger beer, ginger ale, lemonade, &c., of first quality, with a profit, at a penny a bottle. During the last summer they made and sold 2,000 dozen bottles per week, and the demand was so great as to warrant them in increasing their capacity to 5,000 dozens weekly this year. The report concludes by recommending a payment out of the profits of last year of a dividend

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of 10 per cent. free of income tax, after having carried more than £2,000 over to the depreciation fund.

It has thus been proved that a skillfully managed company can carry on this trade in a wholesale manner in the midst of one of the largest English manufacturing populations, with the two very gratifying results of largely aiding to decrease the amount of drunkenness in a perfectly inoffensive and impersonal manner, and of paying an annual dividend of 10 per cent.

WILSON KING,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Birmingham, February 10, 1881.

LACES AND HOSIERY IN NOTTINGHAM.

REPORT OF CONSULAR AGENT SMITH.

The late report of the board of trade and navigation shows that the exports of lace goods and hosiery from the United Kingdom to all countries, during the month of December last, and for the corresponding month of the year 1879, were as follows:

Articles.	1879.	1880.
Lace, patent net	$746,973 68	$871,468 85
Silk lace	32,376 82	98,955 41
Total	779,350 50	970,424 26
		779,350 50
Increase		191,073 76

The exports of hosiery during the same months were as follows:

Articles.	1879.	1880.
Stockings and socks	$135,352 62	$170,916 34
Silk lace	176,858 34	161,786 79
Total	312,210 96	332,703 13
		312,210 96
Increase		20,492 17

The export of lace goods for the years 1879 and 1880 was as follows:

Articles.	1879.	1880.
Lace and patent net	$6,997,076 69	$9,687,060 24
Silk lace	382,935 15	507,177 00
Total	7,380,011 84	10,194,237 24
		7,380,011 84
Increase		2,814,225 40

By reference to my annual reports of exports from this district for the years ending September 30, 1879 and 1880, you will see that the export

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of lace goods through this office, for the year 1880, was $5,055,933.90, and for the year 1879, $2,936,936.75, an increase of $2,118,997.15.

I explained in that report why it did not show the full amount of Nottingham goods shipped to the United States; as some large purchasers of those goods did not ship through this office. These statements seem to me to show, pretty conclusively, that the whole increase of shipments of lace goods from the United Kingdom has been to the United States, and that the prosperous condition of the lace trade in this district is entirely due to the large business which it has with our country.

The board of trade report shows the export of hosiery for the years 1879 and 1880, to have been as follows:

Articles.	1879.	1880.
Stockings and socks	$1, 804, 522 53	$1, 948, 959 20
Other kinds	2, 371, 961 29	2, 609, 042 57
Total	4, 176, 483 82	4, 553, 001 77
		4, 176, 483 82
Increase		376, 517 95

By comparing again my annual reports for the years 1879 and 1880, you will see that there was an increased shipment of hosiery from this district of $254,110.76, as appeared on the consular books. Taking into account the fact that some large manufacturers and shippers of hosiery from this district pass their invoices through other offices, I think it will appear that the whole increase of the export trade in hosiery has been to the United States.

JASPER SMITH,
Consular Agent.

UNITED STATES CONSULAR AGENCY,
Nottingham, January 29, 1881.

STRIKE IN THE COAL MINES.

REPORT BY CONSULAR AGENT HAMMILL, OF ST. HELENS.

In accordance with instructions contained in your circular of July 1, 1880, I annex report of the state of trade in this district as affected by the present strike in the coal trade.

The original cause of the strike was the unwillingness of the men to allow themselves to be contracted out of the employers' liability act passed in the last session of Parliament and which came into operation on January 1, this year. The principle of the act was to throw upon the shoulders of the employer a liability to pay compensation (to the extent of three years' computed wages in case of death and a weekly allowance in case of disablement) for all accidents due to the negligence of the persons responsible for the management of the collieries. It has been computed by a reliable authority that not more than 15 per cent. of the accidents which happen can be traced to negligence on the part of those who are responsible, and therefore in only 15 per cent. of the accidents

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would the injured parties be entitled to compensation, and that, too, perhaps only after tedious litigation. It was proposed by the colliery owners of this district that the men should contract themselves out of the act and receive compensation through another channel, viz, the Lancashire and Cheshire Permanent Relief Society. The proprietors already pay to that society 15 per cent. upon the contributions of the men, and they were willing if the latter would contract out of the act to increase their quota to 25 per cent., it being further undertaken that the weekly allowance in cases of disablement should be increased by 24 cents per week, and that if the contribution of 25 per cent was found insufficient it should be increased to 30 per cent. The workmen's weekly subscription to this society is 6 cents for each man who works on the surface and 8 cents each for those who work under ground; this premium, together with the owners' contribution, insures the widow of any one killed $1.20 per week so long as she remains a widow, and 60 cents per week for each child thirteen years of age and upward.

The refusal of the men to comply with the owners' wishes to substitute this arrangement for the benefits conferred by the act was, as before stated, the original cause of the strike, but the difficulty has been further enhanced by the men now demanding an advance of wages from 10 to 20 per cent.

Since the men have struck work the masters have withdrawn their objections of working under the act, but have stipulated that they will not any longer consider themselves called upon to continue their contributions to the funds of the Permanent Relief Society. The wages question is still pending. It is calculated that 50,000 men are now idle, and if the present unfortunate state of affairs continues the out-put of coal will be restricted by 350,000 tons per week, in consequence of which prices have already increased nearly 50 per cent. Lancashire contributes about an eighth of the whole coal supply of the country, its out-put being at the rate of 18,500,000 tons per annum. The effect of this strike upon the general trade of the district is of course most serious. All the works have already either altogether or in great part suspended their manufactures owing to the impossibility of obtaining fuel. Thus many more men are thrown out of employment, and, as the stocks of chemicals are generally low, a rise in price may be looked for, as immense quantities are exported regularly to the States. This information is important to the merchants who deal in chemicals. Of course the effect on the shopkeepers and small tradesmen of this loss of wages to so large a number of their customers will be very disastrous should the strike continue.

This district is a purely manufacturing one, the principal manufactures being chemicals, glass, copper smelting, iron founding, engineering, and iron and steel wire drawing, and, necessarily, with a teeming working population, there is a large demand for cheap American provisions, though I am not aware that any trade in them is done directly with United States firms, owing to the proximity of the Liverpool markets; but should any of the merchants of the States wish for the names of the most substantial of the tradesmen in these articles, I shall be happy to supply them on their making application at this office.

The strike is increasing, and already, owing to the unusual severity of the weather, the distress among the work-people and their families is both severe and widespread. Hundreds of men are being stopped both at glass works and chemical works on account of there being no fuel to be had, and householders are now experiencing the greatest difficulty

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in obtaining coal, the price of which is fast becoming almost prohibitory. There is also serious rioting in some parts, and it has been found necessary to obtain military aid.

JOHN HAMMILL,
Consular Agent.

UNITED STATES CONSULAR AGENCY,
St. Helen's, January 22, 1881.

COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF THE NETHERLANDS.

REPORT OF CONSUL ECKSTEIN, OF AMSTERDAM.

I have the honor to inclose herewith certain required returns for the quarter and year ending December 31, 1880. They consist of the following, viz: (1) A statement of arrivals and departures of American vessels; a statement showing (2) the value of declared exports from this consular district to the United States; (3) an aggregate return of all fees received at this consulate during the year; and (4) a list of names of persons employed at this consulate.

The first above-mentioned statement shows there have been but three arrivals of American vessels during the quarter; and upon consulting the records of the consulate I find, to my great regret, that only ten vessels bearing the American flag found their way to this port during the entire year of 1880.

The number of arrivals at this port and at Nieuwediep, formerly the port where most vessels with cargoes for Amsterdam went, from 1870 to 1880, were as follows, viz: In 1870, 14; in 1871, 25; in 1872, 5; in 1873, 9; in 1874, 12; in 1875, 10; in 1876, 13; in 1877, 12; in 1878, 15; in 1879, 8; in 1880, 10.

The foregoing figures show an extremely unsatisfactory, if not discouraging condition of American shipping interests, a condition which, unluckily, is not confined to this port but appears to extend to all parts of the world.

It will be seen, also, that there has not been a very marked falling off in the arrivals of American vessels in this port in 1880 as compared with previous years, excepting only the year 1871; but considering that in 1880 there arrived here a much larger number of vessels direct from United States ports than has been the case for many years, especially with cargoes of wheat and Indian corn, it would seem to have been a natural expectation to have witnessed once more an increase, something like a revival of our carrying trade.

The ever-increasing capacity of the United States for the production of breadstuffs, other articles of food, and valuable staples, for which there will doubtless always be an extensive foreign demand, as well as the fact that the manufactures of our country, in almost countless articles, are constantly more and more gaining favor with foreign consumers and entering into successful competition with similar goods made abroad, makes it appear incomprehensible why our mercantile marine is allowed to lag so, and seems in no way to keep step with the recent progress made and prosperity enjoyed in other American interests and industries.

The cause or causes for all this cannot be, and I feel satisfied they are not, shrouded in mystery. They, no doubt, can and should speedily be removed. The way to do it will be found, I venture to state, by the ap-

plication of the popular or national will, combined with some wise legislation on the subject, and perhaps, a modicum of patriotism on the part of some of our citizens who are especially interested.

When once the seas are again studded with our colors, and the American flag is constantly and everywhere seen floating from the mastheads of our shipping, a beacon of joy and solace to millions of people in foreign lands, our progress and prosperity shall indeed be great; and American national pride and glory will not only be still more augmented at home, but it will then have to be generally conceded the world over to be a pride which is just and a glory which is real.

The return herewith of the value of declared exports, &c., shows the exports from this consular district to the United States, during the quarter ending December 31, 1880, to amount to $198,648.53, as against $496,532.10 for the corresponding quarter of last year, This great falling off in the exports during the fourth quarter of 1880 is accounted for in this wise: That during the corresponding period of 1879 large quantities of old iron rails, and scrap iron, tin, and coffee were shipped, whereas there were no exports of those articles during the quarter last past.

A fact deserving notice is that, during the quarter just closed as well as during the previous quarter, quite a little export trade in Sumatra leaf-tobacco has sprung up, about $90,000 worth having been shipped to the United States from this port.

By reference to my return herewith of the aggregate amount of fees collected for the year 1880, it will be seen that, compared with former years, the official business of this consulate has considerably increased since I took charge of it, in July, 1878. In 1877, the fees amounted to $1,068.81; in 1878, to $1,361.78; in 1879, to $1,400.47; and in 1880, to $1,721.57.

D. ECKSTEIN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Amsterdam, January 6, 1881.

POLITICAL ECONOMY IN GERMANY.

REPORT, BY MINISTER WHITE, ON THE CREATION OF AN ECONOMIC COUNCIL.

On the 17th of November last a royal decree was issued for the establishment in Prussia of an economic council (Volkswirthschaftsrath). For some time previous it was known that Prince Bismarck, as chancellor of the Empire and minister president of Prussia, desired to strengthen his position as a reformer of the financial, industrial, and commercial affairs of Germany by creating a council of experts on whose freedom from party ties he could rely, and whose opinions should carry more weight in the special matters concerned than those of any mere members of the Prussian legislature. The royal decree in question was undoubtedly the result of this view. It opens with the statement that it is desirable to submit bills affecting commerce, manufactures, and agriculture, in the first place, to a council composed of persons directly interested in these subjects and possessing special technical knowledge. Such a body, it proposes, shall consist of seventy-five members, called together for a season of five years. Of these, forty-five are to be selected by the ministers of trade and commerce, public works, and agriculture

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from among ninety persons nominated by the various chambers of commerce, manufacturing industry, and agriculture throughout Prussia. Of these forty-five, fifteen are to represent commerce, fifteen manufactures, and fifteen agriculture and forestry. The remaining thirty are to be freely selected by the above-named ministers; it is also expressly provided that fifteen of these shall be taken from among workingmen. No one can be nominated for membership who is less than thirty years of age, and any circumstances disqualifying candidates from other public bodies generally, as, for example, bankruptcy, are also to operate against membership in this. The council is divided into three sections, one for commerce, another for manufactures, the third for agriculture and forestry; and fifteen members selected by the council, together with ten selected by the three ministers, form a permanent committee. The council can be attended by every Prussian cabinet minister or his deputy.

The ministry alone is authorized to frame the regulations of the council, decide when its sittings shall be held, and what measures shall be submitted to it in behalf of the government. Traveling expenses and 15 marks per day are to be paid to members from the state exchequer.

It was not until January 27, or nearly twelve weeks after the promulgation of the decree, that the first meeting of the council was held in Berlin. Its members proved to be mainly wealthy and experienced merchants and manufacturers, land owners, the better class of farmers, and small but apparently prosperous master tradesmen, with some workmen. Prince Bismarck, as president of the council, delivered an address, in which he indicated the leading idea of the new institution, namely, that as the exigencies of trade prevented the interests of commerce, industry, and agriculture from being represented in parliament in the same way and to the same extent as the interests of the learned professions, causing the former to appear there by a minority, although in reality affecting the greater part of the population, he had thought it desirable that the government, whose members are themselves surrounded by officials and men of the learned professions, should be able to obtain cool and matter-of-fact judgments, unbiased by party and political passions, directly from a central body of practical men. He also said that the community of interests throughout the whole empire suggested the desirableness of an extension of the council, and expressed the hope that the other state governments would soon join it.

At the second sitting the council began its consideration of the workingmen's insurance bill, of which I have already given you some account in my No. 182, of the 21st of February. After a few unimportant changes were made in this bill it was returned to the government for ultimate transmission to the legislature.

Another bill on which the advice of the council was asked, was one dealing with the reconstitution of trade guilds. Upon this there was more difference of opinion; but it too was in the end sent back to the cabinet without having been materially changed. With the deliberations on this bill the first session of the Prussian economic council came to a close.

The hope expressed by Prince Bismarck that all the states of the empire might be induced to send representations to the council, thus changing it from a Prussian into an imperial institution, seems to be approaching realization. In his capacity as chancellor of the empire he has inserted a paragraph in the budget recently submitted to the imperial parliament, appropriating 82,000 marks for the establishment and maintenance of an imperial economic council, to be composed of one hundred and twenty-five members, and with which the Prussian coun-

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cil, already formed, is to be amalgamated. Moreover, the draft of a decree similar in principle to that issued for Prussia has just been placed before the federal council. This decree declares that in the said imperial economic council Prussia shall be represented by seventy-five members, Bavaria by fifteen, Saxony by eight, Würtemberg by six, Baden by four, Hesse by three, the two Mecklenburgs by two, Oldenburg by one, the Thuringian states by three; Anhalt, Waldeck, Braunschwerg, Schaumberg, Leppi, and Lippe, by two; Lübeck, Bremen, and Hamberg, by two; and Alsace Lorraine by four. The appropriation for the council in the budget is calculated upon its sitting at least for twenty-one days in the year, the permanent committee holding at least 42 sittings per year; but its terms and sittings are to be entirely under the control of the imperial government, which will call the council together whenever its advice is needed. The chancellor is to be its president and the chairman of its various committees.

Hostile criticism upon the Prussian economic council comes almost entirely from the advanced liberal and progressionist parties. Their organs take the ground that it is like a packed jury, the ministers being likely to choose only men who would support their views, even government officials and other persons dependent upon the central power.

Hitherto there has been no opportunity for the expression of any opinion on the subject by the Prussian legislature, Prince Bismarck having used the royal prerogative for the creation of the council on the ground that it is not a legislative but merely an advisory body. But whatever may be the opinions of political parties, as such, the general impression appears not unfavorable. While it seems generally thought that, as in the case of other important measures, the chancellor has by no means lost sight of the coming elections, it is believed that he is really anxious in this matter to grapple with the difficulties which beset the industry and commerce of the empire, and to avail himself of a new means to revive the prosperity of the nation by throwing more light into the problems of practical political economy, while disarming socialistic agitators, by admitting to more direct influence in the state classes heretofore mainly excluded from it.

ANDREW D. WHITE,
Minister.

UNITED STATES LEGATION,
Berlin, March 7, 1881.

MONEY STANDARD OF GERMANY.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL KREISMANN.

In connection with my last report, under date of the 22d instant, I would further respectfully bring to the attention of the Department, in translation, the following petition to the chancellor of the empire, Prince Bismarck, which is being circulated and extensively signed in many parts of the country, and notably so in the Prussian province of the Rhine and Westphalia:

The undersigned petitioners would most respectfully request of your highness a consideration of the present unsettled condition of finances and credit, with a view of ascertaining the cause of the same. The undersigned feel convinced that the crisis oppressing all brances of industry, and extending especially also to agriculture, is closely connected with the changes in the German coinage and bank policy that prevent the return of confidence indispensable to all spirit of enterprise. Ever since the

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year 1873 the activity of all producing classes has with more or less success been confined to the saving of acquired possessions, in the hope of a return of better times. On all sides, however, liabilities are increasing, without any prospect appearing of an advance in prices or a revival of business enterprise. We emphatically advocate the international settlement of the relative value of gold and silver, proposed by standard authorities, as in the interest of fixing a more stable metal basis, commensurate to all the wants for international traffic, together with a revision of the bank act in the interest of the even more important domestic traffic.

In the expectation that your highness, actuated by the regard for the welfare of the country will not withhold your wise solicitude from a subject which we deem of the greatest moment to the prosperity of the empire, we, as in duty bound, will ever pray, &c., &c., &c.

Manifestations of this and a similar character naturally inspire the friends and advocates of the bimetallic standard, and of an international regulation of the question here, with the hope of their ultimate and, as believed by many, speedy success.

H. KREISMANN,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Berlin, January 29, 1881.

THE MONETARY CONFERENCE AND THE PROPOSITIONS OF GERMANY.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL KREISMANN.

The meeting of an international monetary conference at Paris in the coming spring, seeming now to be secured, speculations are had in the public press and otherwise as to the probable action and results of the conference. The following propositions are urged as a suitable basis for action:

1. Germany agrees to abstain from all further rates of silver, and to recoin the silver thalers of former German and Austrian coinage, supposed to amount to 500,000,000 of marks ($120,000,000), into silver coins of the empire, the value of the same in relation to gold to be 1 to 15.5, and the said silver coins to be standard metallic currency.

2. The United States of America agree to accept the proposition of 1 to 15.5 and with the same to continue to coin standard silver dollars at the rate of from 2,000,000 to 4,000,000 per month, until the price of silver in the world's markets shall have again attained to the rate, in proportion to gold, of 1 to 15.5 (60⅞*d.* per ounce in London).

3. The Latin Monetary Union, or, as the case may be, France, agrees, until that period shall have arrived, to coin per month at least 20,000,000 of francs in silver.

4. As soon as the price of silver corresponds to the proportion of 1 to 15.5, then the obligation to coin silver coins on the part of the states named shall cease, but they shall from that time forward open their mints to the free and unrestrained coinage of silver on the part of private individuals, free of charge other than the actual cost of coinage.

5. The German Empire shall not be required to resume silver coinage.

It is thought that a convention concluded on such a basis would result in the immediate advance in the price of silver, and will greatly inure to the benefit of all the contracting parties.

Whether or not the question of the double standard will come before the German Parliament, which has, on the 15th instant, reassembled, cannot at this time be determined. It will exclusively depend on the atti-

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tude which Prince Bismarck will assume in the premises. Hitherto, in his public manifestations, he has maintained the non-committal policy.

The opening of the Parliament, before alluded to, occurred without the personal presence of the Emperor or the chancellor of the empire. The measures announced in the Crown speech (a translation of the same is herewith respectfully submitted), in which the great chancellor takes especial interest, are the state laboring-man's insurance bill (see dispatch No. 134 of the consul in Brunswick, under date of January 28, 1881), and the law in relation to "guilds," by the provisions of which it is sought to secure better training and skill of German mechanics.

Of moment, moreover, is a bill for punishing drunkenness, an evil which, it is insisted, has recently increased in an alarming degree. On the passage of the bill, if accomplished, a report in full of the same will be transmitted.

H. KREISMANN,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Berlin, February 19, 1881.

FRAUDS IN CUSTOMS REVENUE, GERMANY.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL KREISMANN.

I have the honor to report herewith, in translation, a statement which the imperial government has just deemed it appropriate to address to the mercantile community, and which, as will be seen, reproves the practice of undervaluations resorted to by numerous consignors exporting goods to the United States, as follows, viz:

On former occasions attention has been called to the fact that German exporters who furnish their foreign, and especially their trans-Atlantic, customers, well-founded cause for complaints of negligence or lack of probity in filling the orders for goods placed with them not merely injure and endanger by occurrences of this character their own business, but the development of the German export trade generally. A like result, not less to be deplored, is produced by the continually recurring attempts of German export houses to secure for themselves illicit profits by evading the foreign customs laws. On the part of careful observers it has been noticed that the disposition of German exporters to resort to attempts of this kind is apt to increase proportionately to the remoteness of the places to which the goods are shipped, and the short-sightedness in such practice is moreover emphasized by the circumstance that evasions of customs laws are most frequently attempted by German exporters in the very countries of which it is well known that the customs laws and regulations there are enforced with unrelenting strictness, energy, and vigilance.

In consequence of experiences had in recent occurrences all parties concerned in our export trade cannot be sufficiently warned against the foolish undertaking of trying to violate, for instance, the customs laws of the United States of America. Even if in single instances by means of some new device in this line a transient advantage can be gained, still no person, in the long run, will succeed in evading the extended control of the traffic as exercised by the organs of the customs-house administration of the United States. By the severity of the customs penalties there, care has been taken to subject the persons becoming liable to them to a much greater loss than the illicit profit can possibly amount to that may have been derived from a successful fraud on revenue.

There can be no doubt of the fact that the customs-house administrations in the United States cherish a profound mistrust of German importers, and it becomes the duty, therefore, of the entire German export trade, as a matter of self-preservation, energetically to exert in all directions concerned its influence for depriving such a mistrust of all foundation in fact.

This statement was made public through the *Deutsches Handels-Archiv* (German Commercial Archives), a weekly journal published by the imperial department of the interior (*Reichs Amt des Innern*).

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It is sincerely to be hoped that the appeal may have the desired effect, and thus secure to the Treasury of the United States large sums of revenue of which the same is defrauded.

H. KREISMANN,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Berlin, January 29, 1881.

RECENT INVENTIONS AND PATENTS IN GERMANY.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL KREISMANN.

I would respectfully submit herewith brief notices, as gleaned from the public press (Vossiche Zeitung, &c.), of sundry recent inventions and discoveries here, that are generally regarded as of interest and importance.

Among them is to be mentioned the application of phosphorescent salts as an admixture to colors, by which it is possible to make objects luminous by night. In order to show the general utility of this invention, it need only be pointed out what an advantage it would be for street traffic if all the names of streets and numbers of houses were painted with colors of this description, luminous by night; and how desirable it would be to have cabs and other vehicles painted inside with such colors, which would do away with the unpleasantness of sitting in the dark when driving. Many other illustrations might be added.

Important as the use of these colors might be for purposes of comfort and ease, it would prove far more important in the service of humanity if applied in painting buoys and casks which mark the passage for vessels at the mouths of rivers, harbors, &c.; also, for painting life-belts, life-boats, &c., and thus render the greatest assistance to the saving of life.

As something new in the field of electricity and magnetism in which so many and important discoveries have been made during the last few years, Messrs. Siemens & Halske's magnetic ore-sorting machine is to be named, although the practical utility of the same remains to be determined by the opinions of experts connected with smelting works.

As of importance for every-day practical purposes, an automatic-signaling metal thermometer, constructed by Dr. A. Lessing, deserves notice. Its thermometrical arrangement, like that of the Broquet thermometers, is based upon the greater and smaller curve of two strips of metal soldered together, which vary in their extension from heat. It is in connection with an electric alarm, which latter is set going upon the thermometer reaching temperature. This apparatus gives the alarm upon either any maximum or minimum temperature being reached, and may therefore be highly recommended for the use of public hospitals, where it is often of such great importance to keep within a certain temperature.

Further, a discovery by Anton Giradoni, of Vienna, for bleaching jute and other vegetable matter, and bleaching yarns and textures from them, is likely to exercise a decisive influence on the texture of flax. The process consists in submitting the articles to be bleached to a treatment with a solution of bichromate of potassa turned acid by sulphuric acid, which is followed by a treatment with chloride of calcium or perchloric of potassa, in order to remove the gray, and with permanganate of potassa

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for removing the yellow covering substances. Should this process prove a success, not merely in so far that the articles are made perfectly white, but that the fibers lose none or next to none of their durability, it would place the same in such competition with coarse linen goods as the latter would most likely be unable to withstand.

Another invention that has attracted attention consists in a fire-proof suit for firemen, which has stood the test of an experiment made with it very well, inasmuch as a fireman, dressed in one of these suits, penetrated into the midst of a fire without suffering in any way either from heat or smoke. The suit is made of a thick woolen stuff, which is saturated inside with wax, and covered on the outside with a thick layer of ocher and sulphur. The metal helmet for the protection of the head has a protruding part closed with thick glass, from which a trunk-like hose or tube depends, which is filled with moistened pieces of sponge. The air is admitted through a perforated bottom-plate of the trunk, and is cooled and freed from smoke by passing through the little pieces of sponge. A spiral-formed layer of wire gives the air-tube the necessary strength. While due provision is thus made for inhaling good air, the heat of the fire draws out themoisture from the inner wool and layer of wax, by which means the body is kept cool and an easy movement of the body secured. The outer layer of the dress is water-proof and incombustible; the heat raises blisters on the same, without, however, exposing the woolen stuff to the fire. This outer layer must be renewed every time after use.

There is a new electric lamp invented by M. Otto Schultze, of Strassburg, in which the carbon electrodes are neither alongside of each other nor directly opposite to each other, but at an acute angle. The movement is effected by means of a system of levers in the form of shears, and by two double coils; in addition there appears to be, from the specifications, a contrivance, also, by which, in the event of an interruption of light, another electric current is inserted, by which, apparently, an approximation of the carbon electrodes is again brought about. As to how this new lamp acts, however, nothing has as yet transpired.

In the sphere of public conveyance Mr. Julius Seubich, of Dresden, has obtained a patent here for a control apparatus for cabs and hackney coaches. Said apparatus registers automatically the duration of the ride, as well as whether the drive was by time or by distance, on the person riding taking his seat in the vehicle.

Again, Mr. Mühlrad, of Buckan, near Magdeburg, has patented an instrument which is intended to protect the lives of men employed in coal mines. The apparatus consists of a very large, hermetically-closed, metal drum, which is suspended from a very sensitive pair of scales, so that these are kept perfectly balanced in the air, which is free from fire damp, by means of a solid weight. As soon, however, as any fire-damp, which is lighter than atmospheric air, enters the shaft, the equilibrium between the hollow drum and the solid weight is, according to the Archimedean law, disturbed, and the motion of the beam of the scales sets an electric alarm going which warns the miners to leave the pit.

Much merit is claimed for a stove constructed on a new system, and for which the inventor, Mr. Christian Zillinger, has obtained a patent here. The central part of the stove, in which both coal and coke can be used, serves as a compartment for holding the fuel, from which the latter slides in as required. The most essential part of the stove, and which in the event of the stove proving a success, will, it is believed, lead to its extensive introduction, is a system of ventilation intended to do away with the inconvenience caused by a difference of temperature in the upper

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and lower atmosphere of a heated apartment. An equalization of the temperature by means of a current of air circulating regularly from the floor to the ceiling, would, indeed, satisfy a long felt requirement.

In the railroad line an apparatus for measuring the velocity of trains, invented by Mr. L. Kayser, an engineer at Frankfort-on-the-Main, is regarded with much interest. A principal feature of the apparatus consists of a wheel set in motion by the engine by which a strip of paper is enrolled in such a manner that for every kilometer traveled two centimeters of paper are unrolled and drop into a basket. At the same time a pencil, by clock-work, making a curve every quarter of an hour across the unrolled strips of paper, makes a stroke at each kilometer of the distance traveled. When the train stops its motion, a mark is made across the paper after the lapse of every fifteen minutes. In this manner it is claimed it can always be readily ascertained whether the prescribed rate of speed has been kept up all through the run, or whether running behind time at one point has been made up by increased speed at other points, and whether the stoppage at any stations have not exceeded the time prescribed. Should a train stop more than fifteen minutes at any one station this is marked on the paper by a special apparatus. It has not yet transpired whether the apparatus has already stood practical tests.

Even at the risk of reporting what may have already become known in the United States, I cannot refrain from referring also to Mr. J. A. Martin's novel and valuable process of rendering textile fabrics and wood incombustible, which process has been awarded the allotted prize of 2,000 francs by the *Societé d'encouragement* at Paris. In Mr. Martin's process a mixture of different substances is used, such as boric acid, borax, dextrine, gelatine, glue, and salt ammonia, partly sal ammonia, partly sulphate of ammonia, and carbonate of ammonia, the mixture being made to vary so as to suit the different materials to be impregnated. Experiments made by a committee of the society aforesaid, and in some of the Paris theaters also, are stated to have given satisfactory results. It is also reported that the "Grand Magazin du Louvre," at Paris, as a means of protecting its stock of goods against all danger from fire, causes the same to be covered at night with cloths impregnated with the Martin mixture.

It may not be inappropriate in addition to refer also to the following patents recently issued from the Imperial German patent office, relating partly to new inventions and partly to improvements of existing ones. For instance, a patent has been granted to Friedrich Blanche, of Berlin, for a new mode of coupling screw-brakes. The coupling of screw-brakes of two adjoining carriages is effected in such a manner that each vertical brake-spindle can be connected with a long auxiliary shaft under the carriage by means of chain wheels and unmovable conical wheels. The several auxiliary shafts can be joined together by a coupling apparatus furnished with Hooke's (universal) joint (which latter opens and shuts), which can be drawn out to any length by means of a slide.

Charles W. Siemans, in London, has received a patent here for a process and contrivance for compressing metals and other substances in a molten state. The process consists in introducing water into the form or cast in which the molten mass was cast, in such a way that the water upon the form being closed is converted by the heat of the molten mass into steam, which then compresses the mass under a very high pressure. Other fluids or solid substances may also be used in place of water, such as carbonate of ammonia or a mixture of alkaline intrates with charcoal, which, under the influence of heat, generates steam or gases of a high

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pressure: care must, however, be taken to select only such substances as are capable of producing this pressure evenly and without any sudden explosion.

Mr. W. Lorenz, of Karlsruhe, has obtained a patent for a stamping-machine for the manufacture of cartridge-cases, &c. This stamp consists in the main point of two horizontal pairs of elbow-joint levers which are made movable toward each other, and of which the one part bears the die and the other pair the matrice. The latter pair is moved out beyond a dead point in order that a two-fold pressure may be exercised on the heads of the article to be manufactured. The cartridge-cases, when ready stamped, are knocked off from the machine automatically by an ingeniously-contrived mechanism. In order to prevent the pieces from falling out of the feeder when filling or employing the feeder, or when an interruption in the manufacture is necessary, owing to a breakage of tools, and it is necessary to shut off the feeder, a new safety apparatus has been attached to the machine. All important parts of the machine which easily suffer from wear and tear are arranged movable, so as to enable one always to work as evenly as possible with the machine.

Another patent has been granted to Mr. Robert Peschke, of Osnabrück, for a machine for bending faced longitudinal sleepers. The machine is intended to be used for bending longitudinal sleepers, rails, &c. The bar or rail which is to be bent is, according to its face, enveloped in seven or nine rolls, of which some, besides being vertically movable, revolve around a vertical axis and are movable in the direction of their own axis. By this contrivance the face of the bar is caught in its whole length during the bending, and the bar is only able to move in the direction of the bend.

Likewise a new process for the construction of round stereotype plates with cast and etched zinc plates has been patented on the application of the "Joint-stock Company Machine Works," at Augsburg. The etched smooth zinc plate is bent upon a bending apparatus to the curve of the plate cylinder, so that the column becomes the convex side furnished with a tin coating. The printing type, which is to be cast together with the shape of the zinc plate, is, as is generally the case, shut in the smooth stereotype frame, and in place of the mold a smooth wood engraving of the same height as the types is inserted. The paper matrice is then spread over this type, pressed and dried. After this matrice has been placed in the gypsum apparatus, the bent tinned zinc plate, with its face downwards, is laid over the surface, which has been made smooth by the piece of wood and stuck by the side to the matrice. The casting apparatus is now closed, and the type metal poured in, by which the impressions of the paper matrice are filled in and the zinc at the same time melted, which, upon cooling, effects the connection of the letter type with the zinc plate.

It is hoped that the matters herewith reported may be found useful and suitable for a place in the periodical publications now issued by the Department.

H. KREISMANN,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Berlin, February 5, 1881.

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THE VALUE OF THE "RAMEH PLANT" IN TEXTILE INDUSTRIES AND OF "CURARE" AS A REMEDY FOR HYDROPHOBIA.

REPORT BY CONSUL STANTON, OF BARMEN.

Inclosed I have the honor to transmit translations of certain newspaper articles which attracted my attention, and which may be of some interest to the American public. The one was published in the Elberfeld Zeitung, and is an extract from a book now in the press entitled, "The Crisis in Agriculture and the Means for Remedying it," by Max Wirth; and refers to the rameh plant, which is said to possess qualities and merits of inestimable value for textile industries. The other is a report of Dr. von Hake, of Wittenberg, on the subcutaneous injection of "curare," the Indian arrow poison, as a means of relieving, if not of curing, the conclusions consequent upon hydrophobial poison. This article was published in a recent number of the Cologne Gazette. Reference is made in it to a *cure* effected by Dr. Offenberg, whose report I had the honor to transmit to the Department with my dispatch No. 151, under date of April 8, 1879.

EDGAR STANTON,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Barmen, December 10, 1880.

THE FIBROUS PLANT RAMEH.*

[Translation.]

As yet, France alone has attempted the industrial development of the Chinese plant rameh, and has met with such success as to give this land a decided advantage over other European manufacturing countries.

In consideration of the importance of this matter we have made inquiries of the Society of Industrial Sciences at Lyons respecting the culture and manner of treating the rameh plant, and have received the following information from Mr. A. Leger, engineer, at Lyons, France:

The rameh plant belongs to the nettle family, and, although stingless, recalls the stinging nettle in the form both of its leaves and stems, having, however, a much more luxuriant growth. The stems of the rameh grow straight and in bunches; they are composed of a brittle, woody substance filled with pith and surrounded by a fibrous mantle which is covered by a thin red skin or rind. The fibers are bound together by a resinous substance which is more difficult to dissolve than that contained in flax and hemp, and from this circumstance the retting of the rameh plant is more laborious than hemp and flax, though the hatcheling of the stems is less arduous.

The propagation of the rameh can be effected in every manner, either by seeds, layers, or cuttings, but the reproduction from seeds being a slow and uncertain process it is better to have recourse to slips or layers.

The rameh is a perennial, not, like hemp and flax, an annual, and its strength and fertility increase with its age. With equal energy it withstands both drought and damp, but frosts are injurious to it. Even after frost, however, it is only the first cullings which are lost, since the roots, which penetrate the ground to a depth of thirty centimeters, are seldom affected and soon put forth new shoots. Its growth is unusually rapid, and even in this climate it attains annually a height of from two to two and one-half meters. In its home, however—China and Bengal—it attains a height of five meters.

By cutting the stems when they have attained a height of one meter several crops and finer fibers are obtained, the plant renewing its shoots continually.

The leaves when dried are valuable for the manufacture of that tough Chinese paper which is so much admired, whilst the green ones afford excellent cattle fodder.

On account of its luxuriant growth, good manuring is requisite. Chemical manures

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*See also under "Notes," American Ramie.

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are especially valuable, particularly nitrate of soda (stickstoffsaure soda), lime, and the various kinds of potash.

With the exception of the care necessary in manuring, the cultivation of the rameh is of the simplest kind. With due care for frost, it can be planted at any season. The best manner is to plant it in furrows, 25 centimeters deep and 1 meter apart, the plants being set out at intervals of 1 meter. Hoeing and digging are only necessary the first year, the plant growing afterwards with such luxuriance as to smother all weeds. In the spring, and after each cutting, a hoeing is advisable; and at the approach of winter the earth should be up about the roots to protect them from frosts.

The stems increase rapidly in number, the first growth yielding from 3 to 4, the second from 6 to 8, the third from 10 to 12, the fourth, but only in warm climates, from 16 to 20 stems. Since at each harvest as many cuttings are obtained as there are stems, it is plain that the extension of its culture is a most easy and rapid procedure.

Pecuniarily, the results thus far obtained are most satisfactory. It is maintained that the rameh plant will yield a crop worth from $260 to $380 per hectare. Assuming that three cuttings are annually obtained, there would be a yield of from 4,000 to 5,000 kilos of leaves alone, which would cover all the expense of cultivation. In addition to this, there would be from 1,500 to 2,200 kilos of fibers from which 1,200 to 1,500 kilos of white hackled linen can be spun.

At present English and Belgian manufacturers purchase rameh, which is imported from China, at 35 cents per kilo, selling the same, after hackling, bleaching, and spinning, for $1.40 to $1.90 per kilo, according to the number of the thread. From this it will be seen that the productiveness of this plant promises to be a source of wealth for Southern Europe.

The tenacity of the rameh fiber is 30 per cent. greater than that of flax, and, expressed in figures, bears the proportion of 125 to 80.

In consequence of this tenacity the plant has for many years been used in China in the manufacture of many articles whose solidity we have admired without recognizing the material from which they were made. In China from fibers of this plant the coarsest nets are woven, and fabrics which surpass in gloss and delicacy the finest battiste.

The use of the rameh plant explains the astonishment of so many travelers at the universal employment of silk both in the clothes of the laborers and the sails of ships. As with flax and hemp, the first operation is to separate the fibers from the resinous substance which unites them. This is effected by steeping in water, and as has already been said, is more arduous than with flax. At the beginning therefore the process was longer, and on account of the exhalations from the fermenting vats unhealthier.

The Belgians have, however, substituted for the old a new, more rapid, and healthier process, which produces an excellent commercial result. Large square cemented vats are used. In these the stems are laid, then water is poured on and held, for flax and hemp, at a temperature of 25° centigrade for one or two days, and for rameh from five to six days. To the bath one-half per cent. of the weight of the stems of pulverized charcoal is added, and the same quantity of carbonate of soda or potash, and throughout the process the vats are kept carefully closed. In this manner decomposition takes place slowly, and the fibers are protected from the injurious effects of the exhalations of sulphureted hydrogen.

After the gluten is dissolved from the fibers they have only to be separated from the woody tissue. This is effected by hackling, which, formerly slowly and arduously done by hand, is now performed by machinery in the simplest manner. The stems are passed successively through four pairs of rollers which destroy the woody tissue; then the hackling is done by two pairs of grooved cylinders, which, by a differential movement back and forth, rub and cleanse the fibers from all impurities; a third machine, which consists of a hollow cylinder inclosing an axle, does the combing. This axle is provided with a number of whips, which beat the fibers continually. The fibers enter the cylinder at an opening in the side, the dust is removed by a ventilator, and the stems, reduced to the finest fibers, leave the machine perfectly cleansed, and after bleaching are ready for spinning.

In conclusion it should be remarked that in consequence of the silky character of the fiber, it is necessary to fasten the warp well to prevent its being pulled out when weaving. Special attention also must be paid to the dyeing to insure fast colors.

Recently, under date of October 30, 1880, Mr. Leger has written that the culture of the rameh plant makes great progress in Southern France, Corsica, and Algiers; that a practical process has been discovered for separating the fibers from the stems, and that spinners have worked up the new material in a satisfactory manner. He recommends the spinning works of Mr. E. Batilly, in Nay, Lower Pyrenees, France, especially, and says that manufacturers make as yet a secret of the process, though he (Leger) believes that the flax-spinning machines are used without any alteration.

The only secret is the manner of preparing the fiber and the more or less perfect solution of the gluten. The removal of the gluten is the difficult point, for if insufficiently cleansed the fibers become brittle, and if too much so, they lose a large portion of their tenacity.

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Mr. Leger knows a way of degluteuizing which is not injurious, but gives the fibers the condition required by the flax-spinning machine.

In France measures have been taken for the manufacture of elegant rameh stuffs on a large scale, either from rameh for table cloths and furniture coverings, or mixed with wool and silk for draperies, &c. Mr. Leger is convinced that the time has arrived when this new material shall play a great role in textile industries.

Another expert, a Mr. George Bertrand, sees in the rameh plant the means of restoring to Southern France the prosperity which a long continued crisis has destroyed.

Mr. Leger sent a thread of rameh, which has convinced me as to its silken gloss, tenacity, and the great divisibility of its fibers. I am therefore of the opinion that this industry has a great future, and that the culture of the rameh will prove a profitable substitute for grain culture, whose existence is threatened by the grain product of America.

CURARE AN ANTIDOTE FOR HYDROPHOBIA.

[Translation.]

No. 95, first edition of the Cologne Gazette, contained last year an account of the first cure of hydrophobia by the employment of the Indian arrow poison, curare. A second recent experiment, which, though terminating fatally, shows that a courageous physician is able by the employment of curare to suppress the fearful convulsions attendant on this disease, the possibility of which has been denied up to the present time.

Dr. von Hake, of Wittenberg, reports as follows, in No. 40 of the German Medical Weekly of this year.

A man in his fifty-second year was attacked, the seventh week after being bitten in the hand, by hydrophobia in its worst form. Convulsions were induced as usual by the least draught of air, and particularly at every attempt to drink or even at the approach of any liquid to the mouth. In this condition, on the 17th of August, in the afternoon, the first curare injection was made, and continued every hour until the following afternoon; altogether 38 centigrams were injected. In the morning a decided improvement took place. The patient lay quietly in his bed, was at times, whilst in a sitting position, very communicative, and rejoiced in his improved condition. He breathed quietly and took no notice of draughts of air, caused intentionally, and manifested in the afternoon so great an improvement that he drank, whilst standing, a glass of water without the least inconvenience, having previously taken at two different times a little brandy.

At an unguarded moment the patient received a visit, which was so exciting for him that he fell into such convulsions as to prevent any further medical treatment; and on the following morning the unfortunate man died.

According to the reports of experts, curare has the great drawback of being a preparation varying in its composition and one which loses in virtue by keeping. The production of its effective essence, *curarius*, as a definite and lasting chemical substance, has not as yet, notwithstanding repeated attempts, been possible. The sulphate of curarin (schwefelsaure-curarin) of commerce possesses of all that it should be, only its enormous price.

All this makes the employment of the Indian arrow poison—in the disease hitherto invariably fatal—very uncertain, but the *cure* effected by Dr. Offenberg, and the heretofore unattained results in foregoing case, incite to further practical experiments on the article's virtue, to which, unfortunately, the constantly recurring cases of this disease afford ample opportunities.

THE LARGE EMIGRATION FROM CENTRAL AND SOUTHERN EUROPE.

REPORT OF CONSUL DITHMAR, OF BRESLAU, ON THE CHARACTER OF THE EMIGRANTS DESTINED FOR THE UNITED STATES.

Judging from present indications, the emigration from Central and Southeastern Europe will this year exceed that of last year, and were free or even cheaper transportation offered them thousands would turn their backs on their fatherland where hundreds now do so. Numbers of cigar-makers are leaving this district, and I know from applications made at this consulate that many others would gladly accompany them

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if their passage-money were advanced them, with a written agreement that the amount should be deducted from their wages.

As last year, the majority of the emigrants will be small farmers and agricultural laborers from Silesia, Poland, the Polish-Russian Province of Poten, Moravia, Hungary, and other parts of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, and Southern Russia. Among the Hungarians who will seek a home in the New World are a number of wine-growers from the Tokay district.

The emigrants who passed during the present month through Breslau included, in addition to Prussians and German-Austrians, Croatians, Bosnians, Slavonians, and Servians. Of those who passed through Breslau during the last year, not counting children under three years of age, 1,217 were from Southern Russia and 3,216 from Moravia and Austrian Silesia. The Jewish element was largely represented among the latter, while the Mennonites, who for some years constituted the bulk of the Russian contingent, have now dwindled to an insignificant number.

The loss of the thrifty agriculturists is making itself felt here, and complaints concerning the difficulty of competent farm help are finding their way into the newspapers. An emigration tax of 100 marks per head has been urged by one large landed proprietor, while the superintendent of another writes:

> As regards hired help, matters are worse this year even than last; six persons are leaving me, among them one only recently engaged. But it is the same in nearly every village; fourteen or fifteen families emigrate to America, and those who remain are shiftless and unreliable. My endeavors to hire a good assistant have so far failed; every one talks of going to America. If this thing continues another year whole villages will be depopulated.

"Such a condition of affairs," remarks the journal which prints the foregoing, "should be headed, and receive the attention and consideration of the authorities."

Of the 106,191 persons who emigrated from Germany last year, 103,116 proceeded to the United States, 2,119 to Brazil, 716 to other American States, 132 to Australia, and 27 to Africa. These figures, however, include only those persons of whose emigration the authorities have official knowledge.

Inquiries are frequently made at this consulate by and in behalf of intending emigrants regarding the location, character, and price of government lands, the terms of purchase, &c. A small pamphlet giving trustworthy information in this matter would meet a want greatly felt by the most desirable class of emigrants.

HENRY DITHMAR,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE.
Breslau, February 26, 1881.

EMIGRATION FROM WURTEMBERG.

REPORT BY CONSUL CATLIN, OF STUTTGART, ON ITS CAUSE, CHARACTER, AND EXTENT, AND THE LAWS BY WHICH IT IS GOVERNED.

In my annual report of October last, I alluded briefly to the subject of emigration from Würtemberg to the United States, giving in connection therewith such statistics as were at that time available. These statistics showed not only that, during the nine years from 1871 to 1879,

* See also under "Notes," Emigration from Bremen.

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a total of 23,093 persons had exchanged their homes in this kingdom for new ones in the United States, but, what was more significant, that 14,801 of that number had gone during the first three years of the nine, leaving only a scanty emigration of 8,292 persons during the remaining six. In other words, the average number of emigrants was from 1871 to 1873, 4,933.6 per annum, and from 1874 to 1879, 1382 per annum, showing a decrease of nearly three-fourths from 1873 onward.

AN OFFICIAL INQUIRY.

But since the above facts were communicated to the Department, further and later statistics in relation to this important subject have been made public. It appears that during the summer of 1880 the ministry of the interior, having its attention called to an extraordinary increase in the number of persons leaving the kingdom, instituted a searching and thorough inquiry into the matter. The results of this inquiry, which have just been made public, prove that the attention given the subject by the Würtemberg authorities is fully justified by facts. One noticeable feature is that the revised figures for 1879 show the emigration for that year to have been much greater than had been previously reported. Unfortunately the revision referred to does not cover the whole of the year 1879, but only that portion of it embraced between April 1 and December 31. Yet, even the figures for that period show the number of emigrants to have been 2,258 for the nine months, *i. e.*, at the rate of about 250 per month, or equivalent to 3,000 for the entire year, instead of about 2,000, as previously reported.

A SUDDEN INCREASE IN 1880.

But the official canvass above mentioned also embraced six months of the year 1880, and showed for that period an extraordinary increase, quite sufficient to arouse the authorities of a country which thus found itself the daily loser of able-bodied males, prolific mothers, and robust children of both sexes. It was found that between January 1 and June 30, 1880, emigration from the kingdom had suddenly increased threefold. Owing to the dangers and inconveniences of ocean winter travel, this rush, it is true, did not set in until late in March; but from that time on it continued to such an extent that, during the single month of June, 1,203 persons left, and the total number of departures for the whole six months amounted to 4,617, *i. e.*, at the average rate of 769 per month, equivalent to over 9,000 per annum, as compared with 3,000 in 1879. The following table shows the emigration from Würtemberg by months, during the last nine months of 1879 and the first six months of 1880, viz:

Months.	1879.	1880.
January	.....	215
February	.....	389
March	.....	774
April	241	1,082
May	316	1,203
June	233	954
July	278	.....
August	271	.....
September	329	.....
October	282	.....
November	149	.....
December	159	.....
Total in nine months	2,258	.....
Total in six months	.....	4,617

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In the foregoing statement the term "emigrant" is used as applying to all those who have gone to lands outside of the German Empire with the intention of settling there permanently. Estimating the population of the kingdom in round numbers at 1,900,000 (the census of December 1, 1880, showed it to be 1,970,132), the emigration during the above fifteen months amounted to 3.6 per thousand for the entire period. But while the monthly average for the nine months of 1879 was 0.13, or at the rate of 1.5 persons from every thousand *per annum*, that of the six months of 1880 was 0.40, or at the rate of an annual emigration of 4.8 persons on every thousand of the population. This latter rate is largely in excess of the average emigration rate from the entire German Empire. At a rough estimate Würtemberg, while comprising only *one-twenty-second part* of the entire population of Germany, contributed last year *one-twelfth* of the German emigrants landed in the United States. The rate from all Germany during 1880 was 2.5 persons per thousand; from Würtemberg alone, as previously stated, 4.8 per thousand, as compared with 0.76 persons per thousand from all Germany, and 1.5 persons per thousand from Würtemberg during the preceding year 1879.

COMPARATIVE RATE OF INCREASE AND LOSS.

Now, this comparatively large percentage of emigration from Würtemberg, as compared with the rest of Germany, is, unfortunately, not compensated for by any correspondingly more rapid increase of population than that prevailing elsewhere throughout the empire. Thus, during the last five years the annual excess of births over deaths in Würtemberg has averaged 25,500, or about 1¼ per cent. of the entire population. If we estimate the excess of births over deaths annually in all Germany at 542,000 (as is shown by statistics for 1872–'78), and the total population of the empire at 45,000,000 in round numbers, we have almost the same rate of increase, *i. e.*, 1⅕ per cent. In other words, Würtemberg, though slightly in advance of the rest of Germany in the relative proportion of births and deaths, yet shows no such excessive rate of increase as would be required to compensate for the greater proportional drain made upon her by emigration.

WÜRTEMBERG INFLUENCE IN AMERICA.

But while, as statistics show, Württemberg has lost 262,000 and upwards of her sons and daughters since the year 1812, by reason of their emigration to the United States, she may at least in return take to herself the proud satisfaction of knowing that the representatives whom she has sent us have for the most part proven themselves patriotic, thrifty, and substantial citizens of the land of their adoption, and left their impress for good upon their day and generation. In this connection I cannot, perhaps, do better than quote the words of one of my predecessors, Consul Klauprecht, who, in a report to the Department in 1865, wrote:

> In comparison with other German states, this consular district furnished the largest number of emigrants, an honest, robust, industrious, and enterprising class of men, such as Rapp and Baümler, the founders of Harmony in Indiana, Economy in Pennsylvania, and Zoar in Ohio. The Würtembergers are the banner bearers of liberty and unity in Germany, and they remain true to their holy instinct in their adopted country. On the lists of our patriotic soldiers, fallen for the maintenance of the Union, the natives of Würtemberg predominate among those of Germany.

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DISTRIBUTION OF THE LOSS BY EMIGRATION.

Inquiry has also been recently made by the Würtemberg authorities with a view to ascertaining from what section of the kingdom the emigrants who departed during the fifteen months covered by the report have principally been drawn. By this means it is discovered that the western sections, comprised in what are known as the Neckar and Black Forest regions, have furnished over three-fourths of the total number. Thus:

From the Neckar counties (northwest) there were 2,697 emigrants, or 0.46 per cent. of the population; from the Black Forest counties (southwest) there were 2,559 emigrants, or 0.56 per cent. of the population; from the Jaxt counties (northeast) there were 827 emigrants, or 0.21 per cent. of the population; and from the Danube counties (southeast) there were 792 emigrants, or 0.17 per cent. of the population.

I find no satisfactory means of accounting for this preponderance of emigration from the western sections of the kingdom, as similar causes would seem to be in operation in both the west and the east. In point of comparison by localities, it is found that emigration was heaviest from the districts (including the environs) of Stuttgart, Cannstatt, Balingen, Tuttlingen, Schorndorf, Esslingen, Nürttingen, and Reutlingen.

AGE AND SEX.

It is also of interest to consider the question of age and sex, as applying to the emigration of the fifteen-months period referred to. Thus of families there were 676, comprising in all 2,882 persons; of unmarried adults there were 1,682 males, 575 females—total, 2,257 persons; of minors not included above, 1,151 males, 585 females—total, 1,736 persons; making the aggregate of 6,875 persons.

AVOCATIONS AND CALLINGS.

Not the least remarkable feature of this new tide of emigration is that it is almost entirely drawn from the rural population; that is, from among the tillers in the grain-fields and vineyards, and even, in many cases, from among the proprietors themselves. Stated in figures the percentage is about as follows:

	Per cent.
Farmers	33.73
Peasant laborers	54.07
Other callings, only	12.20
Total	100.00

It will thus be observed that 87.80 per cent. of the adult emigration is made up of men and women whose manual labor has been devoted to agriculture, and whose absence will be sorely felt in the planting, raising, and harvesting of crops, not even now adequate to the necessities of the population of the kingdom.

VIEWS OF A PROMINENT OFFICIAL.

I have recently been favored with an opportunity for a quite extended and, at the same time, informal conversation on this subject with a prominent official of the Würtemberg government. Allusion having been made to the recent remarkable increase in the number of those departing hence for America, the official replied that the question had

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indeed of late been occupying public attention, on account not so much of the actual loss in numbers occasioned thereby as the excellent quality of the material that is at present leaving this kingdom for the United States.

Question. Of what class of people is the present emigration principally composed?

Reply. Chiefly of tillers of the soil, hardy and robust men whose loss from the rural districts will be much more felt than would the drawing off of a corresponding number of the population from the cities, which are comparatively overcrowded, and where the unemployed and criminal classes are generally found. As for the actual loss in population it is really no great subject for regret, for our rate of increase is very rapid. The kingdom is quite thickly peopled, its productive capacities are taxed to the utmost for the support of its inhabitants, and a moderate emigration may therefore be considered rather a relief than otherwise. But those who are emigrating are the tillers in the fields and vineyards, men who are necessarily the largest contributors to our agricultural welfare, and who have generally some mechanical skill as well. They compose the element we can least afford to lose.

Question. Is there any reason for supposing that paupers and criminals are sent from here to the United States as emigrants?

Reply. None whatever; that is, in the case of persons known to be such. It is of course impossible for the emigrant agents to make thorough inquiry into the antecedents of every one of the many hundreds presenting themselves to be registered as intending to emigrate. But there is no organized movement either on the part of local, county, or town authorities, or of any philanthropic association, to send such persons to the United States. A general belief and understanding exists here that even if sent thither they would not be permitted to land.

Question. Are there any means by which the authorities here can, if they so desire, arrest this tide of emigration?

Reply. Practically none. Even the restrictions existing at the German ports of embarkation, Hamburg and Bremen, are rendered fruitless by the fact that any German, wishing to emigrate to America, can easily avoid them by passing over into Belgium or Holland, and taking steamer at Antwerp or Rotterdam. On the French frontier the passport regulations are enforced with a somewhat greater show of vigor, so that but few emigrants from Germany leave by way of Havre, or other ports in France. Most of those leaving covertly go by way of one or the other of the two non-German ports previously mentioned.

Question. To what, in your opinion, may this sudden increase, or rather revival, of emigration to the United States be attributed?

Reply. Every season disastrous to agricultural interests gives an impetus to emigration. The grape and grain crops have been poor for three or four years now, causing much distress and want among the lower classes and in the rural populations. These latter, hearing from their friends in America of the, to them, fabulous rates of wages (two or three dollars a day) paid there, and of the good crops and general prosperity, naturally turn thither with longing eyes, and come to look with discontent upon their lot here, where they see no chance of bettering themselves. Do what they will, few if any of them lay aside any money here. The great evil in our rural districts is the tavern, where workingmen pass their evenings drinking beer instead of remaining at home with their wives and families. When their working hours are

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over they repair to the tavern; when Sunday comes they pass the entire day there. The result is they save nothing, and are no better off at the end of the year than they were at the beginning.

Question. Is there no remedy for this prevalence of beer shops?

Reply. Not so long as licenses to keep them are so easily obtained. Were only one or two allowed in each village, the evil would be to a great extent done away with, whereas now almost every other house is a beer saloon, and a laboring man finds it almost impossible, in passing along the street, to resist the temptation of dropping in at one or another of them before he reaches his home.

Question. Are the peasantry here kept well informed of the condition of affairs in America by those who have previously emigrated thither?

Reply. Perfectly. Every letter brings glowing accounts of high wages, good crops, and general welfare, and virtually says, "Come over and join us." It is easy to understand how ready a poor man with no prospects before him here is to listen to such an invitation.

Question. Is the emigration proportionally large at present from the other parts of Germany?

Reply. I can only speak with regard to Bavaria, from which kingdom the emigration is considerably less than from Württemberg. As a general thing the Bavarians are not an emigrating people, and moreover their kingdom is not so densely populated as this. Formerly there was considerable Bavarian emigration to Hungary, principally to Transylvania; other parties of Bavarians emigrated to the Rhine Palatinate, but the present tide of departures from Württemberg to America finds no parallel from the neighboring kingdom to the eastward.

ECONOMY AMONG WORKINGMEN.

The statements made in the foregoing conversation, coming from the source they do, are worthy of more than ordinary consideration by all who feel an interest in this subject. Especially important, as pointing out a great evil which is constantly gnawing at the vital interests of the lower classes, is the allusion to the prevalence of excessive beer-drinking among the workingmen—an indulgence which benumbs their faculties, renders them torpid and slothful, stamps out every thought of frugality, and effectually precludes that habit of laying aside a little something, if only a few pfennigs, every day, which has of late years, and under the influence of republican institutions, made France a nation of petty landowners. Were the same economy practiced here the same happy results might ensue. But mark the contrast. While the Frenchman, who never emigrates, prefers to endure privation and semi-starvation at home, that he may in time come to own a few square meters of the soil of his loved France, the more enterprising German turns from the denials and despair of his native surroundings to seek for relief in emigration to the New World.

The prevalence of beer saloons in the various cities, towns, and villages of not only this kingdom, but of all Germany as well, at once strikes the visitor. Thus, during the year 1879, there were in Stuttgart 813 saloons, or 1 to every 150 of the population; in Cannstatt 190, or 1 to every 84, and in Ludwigsburg 124, or 1 to every 118. The same rule would seem to hold in Bavaria, where in the capital city, Munich, there were during the same year about 1,400 drinking saloons, or 1 to every 160 inhabitants. The average for the whole of Würtemberg is about

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1 saloon to every 100 inhabitants, as will be seen by the following table (estimating the total population as before at 1,900,000), viz:

Class.	1879.	1878.	1877.	1870.
Hotels with bars	7,704	7,775	7,655	6,851
Drinking saloons	10,729	11,047	10,969	6,133
Licensed retail dealers	419	445	.....	.....
Total	18,942	19,267	18,624	12,984

As these saloons furnish daily employment in all to about 16,000 persons, and, counting those dependent upon that number, furnish a means of support to about five times as many, say 80,000, it is difficult to understand how they all find means to exist, save on the hypothesis that they patronize each other. There were in Würtemberg in 1879 no less than 7,397 beer breweries, and the amount of malt brewed was 135,179,100 pounds, or about 71 pounds to every man, woman, and child in the kingdom. A single brewery in Stuttgart during that year brewed 40,000 hectoliters, or 880,360 gallons, of beer. Nor should it be forgotten that in addition to the quantity of this beverage manufactured within the kingdom, enormous importations are made hither from Munich and Pilsen, the beer brewed in those cities being by many considered preferable to the local product. It is to be regretted that no statistics are here available to show the annual consumption of beer per capita in the kingdom. Inferentially, however, it may be seen that it is very large, and that it is calculated to make an immense drain upon the individual resources of the consumers. In short, it is safe to say that the sum annually spent in beer in Germany would go far toward paying the entire expense of the standing army of the empire.

ILLEGAL DEPARTURES.

Another fact referred to in the conversation above cited is the departure of many young men who have not complied with the legal formalities. This is corroborated by statistical evidence showing that of the 6,875 persons who emigrated, from April 1, 1819, to June 30, 1880, only 1,308, or a little less than one-fourth, were formally released from their obligations to the Kingdom of Würtemberg; and of these 1,308, there were 1,280 who went to the United States. It is also noticeable that the proportion of those sailing from other than German ports—a route which suggests, at least, a covert departure—is very large. Thus there were 1,154 who left by way of Antwerp and Liverpool, 1,404 by way of Antwerp direct, and 285 by way of Rotterdam, making an aggregate of 2,843 by non-German ports.

THE VALUE OF EMIGRANTS.

It should be remembered, too, that the loss which the departure of these emigrants occasions to their native country is not to be computed merely by the lack of manual labor it causes in the agricultural regions. Were this the only evil, it might be looked upon as a temporary and remediable one. But when we come to consider that, according to the most eminent German statisticians, every member of society who has attained his fifteenth year, or a self-supporting age, represents in the money already spent on his support and education a sum equal to about

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$500, the question at once assumes a practical pecuniary interest, for at that rate of calculation Würtemberg has contributed during the year 1880 alone the snug sum of $4,500,000 toward the extinguishment of our national debt. But this estimate seems to me entirely too low. If, in the days of negro slavery, an average ignorant field-hand was valued at $500, how incalculably more valuable, in the pecuniary, moral, and intellectual scale, is the free white emigrant, with strong arms, an educated mind, and a spirit imbued with principles of freedom, who comes to our shores, bringing his all with him, to do battle with fortune.

The material wealth in the shape of money and personal effects brought over by emigrants averages, according to the commissioners of emigration reports, $112 per capita, and probably considerably more than that in the case of the excellent class of people now going from Würtemberg. One case has recently been reported to me of a family, consisting of ten members, who emigrated to the United States from the neighboring village of Falbach, taking with them 35,000 marks (or about $8,000) in money.

THE CAUSES OF EMIGRATION.

Allusion has already been made to the failure of crops, and the discontent and misery resulting therefrom, as the principal causes of emigration. The increase of demand for labor does not keep pace with the increase of the population. To this may be added the desire to avoid military service, although I am inclined to the belief that, in a majority of cases, this motive is only a secondary one. This belief is corroborated by the experience of former years, for it appears that during the year 1867–'68 the apprehensions then expressed by many that the new Prussian military law would drive out the best material from the country, proved groundless. During that year, for instance, of 132 emigrants who left the town of Reutlingen, only 26 were liable to military duty. It is not the fear of military service, but a simple desire to better their condition that drives most young men to emigrate. The German country youth, seeing before him no future, no opportunity of being other than a peasant, and a hard-worked one at that, as his father and his grandfather were before him; hearing, moreover, from his companions, who have gone before him to the western Eldorado, glowing accounts of their success and prosperity, determines to follow their example. His dominant motive is a desire to better his condition. By the help of his friends, he scrapes together enough money to buy his passage ticket and land him on the wharf at New York or Philadelphia, with barely more than strong arms and a hopeful heart as guarantees of a successful manhood. But, on the eve of his departure, a specter confronts and claims him. It is a debt of military service which he owes his native land—a debt the payment of which will preclude for a term of years at least his contemplated departure. It is not to avoid this debt that he leaves, but its avoidance is simply incidental to the carrying out of his previously concerted plans. And so he quietly passes over into Holland or Belgium to take ship, Germany loses an able-bodied citizen, and the United States census report chronicles a gain of one.

It is probable that this emigration of young men would be much greater were some restraint put upon the liberty of marriage. Having, by marrying, given hostages to fortune, many a peasant young man finds himself anchored fast in his native village, compelled to remain there by sheer inability to find means to remove his wife and children across the Atlantic, or to provide for their support during his absence, should he go

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alone to pioneer the way. To early and improvident marriages, according to statisticians, may be attributed not only the evil just mentioned, but that unduly rapid increase of population which threatens to become, at no distant day, Germany's most difficult problem.*

LAWS GOVERNING THE TRANSPORTATION OF EMIGRANTS.

In connection with this subject of emigration I deem it not inappropriate to include here a translation of the laws now in force here, governing the transportation of those who emigrate beyond the seas. They are as follows:

With the supreme consent of His Royal Majesty, the following enactment is made upon the basis of Article VII, section 6 of the act of December 27, 1871, relating to the modification of police penalty laws, and consequent upon the new German imperial law, viz:

I.

A license to contract for the transportation of emigrants to transmarine countries shall only be granted to such emigration agents as are resident in Württemberg.

II.

For the transaction of business, as emigration agent, a license is issued by the department of the interior. Application for the same is to be made to the county authorities of the district in which the applicant resides, or intends to reside, accompanied by the following documents, viz:

(*a*) Certificate of character and financial condition of the applicant.

(*b*) A power of attorney from the emigration contractor, containing an unconditional approval of all transactions of the emigration agents, and their subagents, particularly the agreements prescribed in article 7, letter (*i*), as well as an acknowledgment of the payments made by emigrants to the emigration agents or their subagents. Such approval to be secured by power of attorney, even in cases where the transactions of the agents are contrary to the instructions of the principals.

The power of attorney of the emigration contractor, if he be resident in the German Empire, must be drawn up by a public authority of the interior, or by some person in the country possessing public confidence. If the emigration contractor is resident in a foreign country, and the power of attorney is drawn up by an authority of that country, the legalization by the consul or ambassador of the German Empire is necessary.

The county authority must present the application to the department of the interior, accompanied by an expression of its opinion.

III.

Permission to transact business as subagent of an emigration agent, licensed in accordance with Article II, is granted by the county authority of the district in which the former resides. This permission presumes the production of proof that the applicant possesses an unexceptionable character, and of a power of attorney approving all transactions and receipts of payments by the subagents. As a rule only one subagent shall be allowed to each emigration agent within the limits of each county.

IV.

The emigration agent is only allowed to provide for the transportation of emigrants by one particular seaport, through the mediation of one particular emigration contractor. The emigration agent is bound to give such security as circumstances may require for the performance of his obligations to emigrants, such security to be given by depositing bonds of the German Empire, or of its confederated states. The subagent's authorization only permits him to transact business within the limits of the county which has issued him his authority, and within the privileges of the emigration agents.

V.

The licenses of emigration agents and subagents may be annulled at any time, particularly when the manner of conducting the business gives rise to complaint. A

* See article entitled "Germany's Dilemma" in New York Semi-Weekly Tribune of December 21, 1880, by Richard T. Ely.

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license ceases to be valid when the emigrant agent's authorization from the emigration contractor is withdrawn, or in case the latter withdraws his authority from the subagent, or when, in any case, a change is made without the consent of the proper authorities having been obtained; also, in case the concession is withdrawn from the contractor. In either of the cases just named, the emigrant agent must give immediate notice to the department of the interior, the subagent to the competent county authority.

VI.

Contracts for transportation must be legibly drawn up in the German language, signed by the emigrant agent, and presented, in original form, to the emigrants. A duplicate of each contract must be carefully preserved by the emigrant agent, or subagent, and presented to the police authorities for inspection whenever called for. The blank forms for contracts, which should, if possible, be uniform for every port, must receive the approval of the department of the interior before being used.

VII.

Every contract for transportation must contain the following points, viz:

(*a*) Name, occupation, and age of the emigrant, and his previous place of residence, the name of the emigration contractor, and of the emigrant agent, and, in case the contract has been made by a subagent, also the name of the latter.

(*b*) The port of departure, and the port of destination, the day on which the emigrant is to reach the port of departure, an exact statement of the day of going on board ship, the name of the ship, and a statement whether steam or sailing vessel, and an express stipulation that in case of the non-departure of the ship named, only another of the same kind and equally seaworthy can take its place.

(*c*) An obligation to forward the emigrants to the port of sailing, if demanded by them, for a sum to be agreed upon in advance, and, if so requested by the emigrants, to provide food and lodging for them on the journey thither, and to provide beds and other necessary articles for the voyage.

(*d*) An obligation to furnish the emigrant food and lodging or an equivalent in money during any delay beyond the date of sailing named in the contract, if such delay in sailing is not the fault of the emigrant himself, and from whatever cause arising.

(*e*) An obligation upon the demand of the emigrant to forward his effects to the port of sailing, and place them on shipboard, also to insure them during the journey. If the effects are forwarded at the request of the emigrant, the name and address of the forwarding agent must be distinctly given.

(*f*) A guarantee of a sufficiency of food during the voyage, and a statement of what the emigrants receive on shipboard, particularly as to place, sleeping-room, amount of food, their drinking-water, and free baggage.

(*g*) The amount of compensation for incidental expenses not included in the usual contract, and the exclusion of every other kind of charge not definitely agreed upon.

(*h*) An obligation to transport the emigrant and his effects to the point of destination, even though the ship upon which he has taken passage should, by any accident, be prevented from continuing the voyage.

(*i*) An obligation on the part of the emigration contractor and the emigrant agent, in case of any suit at law arising from the contract for transportation, to concede the point before the courts of the place of residence of the emigrant agent, which were competent at the time of making the contract, and to renounce any objections resting on any contracts of later date which are in contravention of the preceding stipulations.

(*k*) The direction of emigrants to the official sources existing in the ports for their benefit, and for giving free advice and counsel, stating the street and number of the house where such offices are located.

VIII.

The department of the interior reserve the right to forbid the transportation of emigrants to certain countries or ports, or the transportation by way of non-German ports, either entirely or in part, or to make such transportation subject to certain conditions.

IX.

No contracts for transportation shall be made with persons who are prohibited from emigrating by the laws of the place of destination. The same restriction holds good in the case of persons of whom the agent knows or must believe that they have no right to emigrate according to the laws of the country to which they belong.

X.

The emigrant agent must keep a serial list of the emigrants with whom he or his subagent have executed contracts for transportation, which list he must exhibit

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whenever demanded for official inspection. This list must contain the family and christian name of each emigrant, the last place of residence, the date of the execution of the contract, the name of the emigration contractor, the point of destination, the date of going on shipboard, a statement whether the transportation is by steamer or sailing vessel, and the price agreed upon for the voyage.

The foregoing law is dated at Stuttgart, April 17, 1879, and is signed by the minister of the interior for the Kingdom of Württemberg. In connection herewith I append a statement of the blank forms and instructions pertaining to contracts for emigrant transportation, viz:

[Licensed chief agency for the transportation of travelers and emigrants.]

Shipping contract. To North and South America and Australia from ——.

Chief agency No. —; agency No. —.

(To be handed in original to the emigrant.)

In behalf of —— ——, licensed shipping agents, Mr. —— —— chief agent, or —— ——, his subagent, has accepted the following-named person for transportation, at ——, by the —— sailing from —— to ——, Captain —— —— of ——, namely:

Serial No.	Christian and family name of passenger.	Occupation.	Late residence.	Age.

Should the above-named vessel from any cause be prevented from sailing on the day appointed, only one that is equally seaworthy and of the same kind can take its place.

I.

The price is to be paid as follows, viz:

	M.	Pf.
(*a*) For passage from —— to ——, including thorough care and maintenance during the sea voyage:		
For every adult, —— marks, *i. e.*, for —— adults; in all		
For every child from one to ten years, —— marks, *i. e.*, for —— children; in all		
For every infant under one year, —— marks, *i. e.*, for —— infants; in all		
(*b*) For free transportation from —— to ——:		
For every adult, —— marks, *i. e.*, for —— adults; in all		
For every child from one to ten years, —— marks, *i. e.*, —— children; in all		
(*c*) For maintenance and lodging from arrival in —— up to the time of embarkation in ——:		
For every adult, —— marks, *i. e.*, for ——; in all		
For every child from one to ten years, —— marks, *i. e.*, for —— children; in all		
(*d*) For providing bedding and utensils required on the vessel:		
For every adult, —— marks, *i. e.*, for —— adults; in all		
For every child, —— marks, *i. e.*, for —— children; in all		
Total in marks		
on which a deposit has been made for —— persons, at —— marks per head, making		
Leaving a balance of		

which must be paid before going on board to Mr. —— ——, for which he will give a receipt, as per form appended hereto.

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II.

The arrival at ——— is to take place on the —— day of ——— in the afternoon, with baggage; and passengers are directed to call at once on Mr. ——— ———, in ———, with regard to their further transportation. In ———, Mr. ——— ——— takes upon himself the transfer: and at the seaport of ———, the embarkation of passengers and luggage will be attended to by Mr. ——— ———.

III.

The chief agent or his subagent is bound to forward emigrants at their request to the seaport in question, to care for and maintain them during the journey thither, as well as at the seaport, from the time of their arrival there up to the day of the sailing of the vessel, and to provide the bedding and utensils required on the voyage. These services must, however, be particularly agreed upon, and the prices paid for them as provided in Section I. If this be neglected, passengers are to supply themselves with the required articles.

IV.

If the embarkation cannot take place on the day above mentioned, through some delay not the fault of the emigrant, then the chief agent, or, in his stead, the ship manager or owner is obliged, even though the delay is occasioned by accident, or the interposition of Providence, to care for and maintain the emigrant without charge up to the time of departure, or, for every day of delay, to pay an indemnification of 1 mark and 50 pfennigs for each adult, and one-half that amount for children.

V.

On demand the chief agent or his subagent is bound to forward the effects of the emigrant to the seaport, and place them on board ship, through Mr. ——— ———, at ———. From Mannheim or Frankfort-on-the-Main, emigrants are allowed 50 pounds free baggage for adults, and 25 pounds for children aged from one to ten years. Overweight must be paid for. On shipboard one-half cubic meter of space is free for adults, and half that space for children from one to ten years. The insurance of effects for the journey overland as well as for the sea voyage is effected on application to the chief agent or his subagent. The premium for the journey by land is about one-quarter to one-half per cent., and for the sea voyage one to one and one-half per cent. on the declared values, and is determined according to route and the season of the year. If insurance is desired, the emigrant receives a special receipt by means of which he may, in case of injuries, establish his claim.

VI.

Emigrants are entitled on shipboard to—

(*a*) Sleeping room in the steerage.

(*b*) Pure water, warming, light, and, in case of illness, free medical attention and medicines.

(*c*) Sufficient food, consisting of fresh bread daily, and coffee or tea in the morning, with sugar, bread and butter, or biscuit and butter; at noon soup, beef or pork, with potatoes and vegetables, or fish and potatoes, according to the day of the week. In the evening tea, sugar, biscuit and butter.

VII.

The services which may be agreed upon, exclusive of conveyance from the port of sailing to the port of destination, are contained in Section I. No further payment can be claimed by the agent or shipper.

VIII.

In case of any accident on the voyage, compelling the vessel to return, or enter another port, interpositions of Providence not excepted, the chief agent, or, in his stead, the shipping manager, is in duty bound to transport the emigrants, together with their luggage, with free care and maintenance, and without further expense, to their appointed destination.

IX.

The chief agent and his subagent as well as the ship owners and ship managers bind themselves—the latter by power of attorney filed at the royal ministry of the interior—in case of any suit at law arising out of the present contract, to concede the point before the courts of the place of residence of the emigrant agent, which were

competent at the time of the making of the contract, and to renounce any objections resting on any contracts of later date which are in contravention of the preceding stipulations.

X.

Should the emigrants through any fault of their own fail to reach the seaport in due time, or should they fail to pay over the balance of the passage money before their departure or embarkation, the deposit money will under any circumstances be forfeited, and the emigrant loses every claim which might be based on this contract.

XI.

In regard to other stipulations, reference is hereby made to the prospectus of the ——— company, which is appended to this contract, and which is binding upon the contractor in all of its features which are not contradictory to the aforementioned conditions and obligations. Particular attention is called to the fact that only such persons can receive transportation as may, under existing emigration laws, be permitted to land in the countries to which they are bound. Emigrants are earnestly warned to follow closely the instructions of the agents, shippers, and managers of the parties signing this contract, and to observe the greatest precaution against obtrusive guides and advisers at the seaports and landing places. Emigrants requiring advice are recommended to apply at the following offices for the protection of the emigrant, where they will obtain reliable advice free of charge, viz:

Bremen.—At the information bureau in the railway station, and at the market below Schlütting.

Hamburg.—At the emigrant office, 1st Vorsetzen, No. 3.

Antwerp.—At the emigrant office, Digue de Terre, 33.

Liverpool.—At the custom-house arcade.

New York.—At the German Society No. 13 Broadway.

Boston.—At the German Aid Society of the city of Boston.

Baltimore.—At the German Society, No. 143 West Lombard street.

Philadelphia.—At the German Society, No. 24 South Seventh street.

New Orleans.—At the German Society, No. 10 St. Peter street.

The present contract is executed in duplicate, acknowledged by the contractors through their signatures, and a copy given to each party.

Signed at ———, the —— day of ———, 188—.

——— ———,
——— ———,
——— ———,
Passengers.
——— ———, *Chief Agent.*
——— ———, *Sub-Agent.*

RECEIPT.

The balance of the aforesaid passage money, amounting to ——— marks, was paid to-day, receipt of which is hereby acknowledged.

——— the —— of ———, 188—.

——— ———,
Agent.

ADDRESSES.

Directly on arrival in the stations or seaport, passengers apply for further transportation to the following parties, viz:

In Stuttgart, to Mr. ——— ———.
In Frankfort, to Mr. ——— ———.
In Mannheim, to Mr. ——— ———.
In Cologne, to Mr. ——— ———.
In Bremen, to Mr. ——— ———.
In Hamburg, to Mr. ——— ———.
In Antwerp, to Mr. ——— ———.
In Rotterdam, to Mr. ——— ———.
In Liverpool, to Mr. ——— ———.

SHIPMENT OF PAUPERS AND CRIMINALS.

In the preparation of this report one of my primary objects had originally been to ascertain whether the practice of shipping paupers and criminals to the United States exists in this kingdom. While I may here briefly state, as the result of my investigations, that in my opinion

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it does not, the inquiry has, nevertheless, elicited so many facts of interest bearing on that subject that I have determined, instead of embracing them in this report, already long, to embody them in a separate report, which I hope to transmit at an early day.

I append a published statement of the recent census of the German Empire, as bearing upon the question of emigration therefrom.

GEORGE L. CATLIN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Stuttgart, March 8, 1881.

Census of the German Empire December 1, 1880.

State.	Population.	Percentage of increase.	
		1875 to 1880.	1871 to 1875.
Prussia	27,251,067	11.4	10.4
Bavaria	5,271,516	9.7	8.0
Saxony	2,970,220	14.6	19.2
Württemberg	1,970,132	9.2	8.5
Baden	1,570,189	8.2	7.7
Hesse	936,944	11.6	9.0
Mecklenburg-Schwerin	576,827	8.2	— 1.8
Mecklenburg-Strelitz	100,269	9.4	— 3.4
Thuringian states:			
Saxe Weimar	309,503	11.0	5.8
Saxe Meiningen	270,147	12.6	8.5
Saxe Altenburg	155,062	12.3	6.5
Saxe Coburg-Gotha	194,479	12.6	11.6
Schwarzburg-Rudolfstadt	80,149	8.9	3.8
Schwarzburg-Sondershausen	71,083	10.4	1.1
Reusz, Old	50,782	15.5	10.3
Reusz, New	101,265	18.4	9.2
Oldenburg	337,454	11.0	3.7
Brunswick	349,429	13.0	12.0
Anhalt	232,747	17.2	12.1
Waldeck	56,548	6.5	— 6.7
Schaumburg-Lippe	35,332	12.8	8.2
Lippe	120,216	13.3	2.9
Lubeck	63,571	22.1	21.8
Bremen	156,229	18.8	37.4
Hamburg	454,041	13.1	34.1
Alsace-Lorraine	1,571,971	5.2	— 2.9
Total	45,149,172	11.2	10.0

EMIGRANTS OF THE CRIMINAL AND PAUPER CLASS.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL LEE.

It has come to my knowledge that some one representing the authorities having the care of the poor in the city of Pittsburgh has written to persons residing here, or in this vicinity, representing that an insane boy, or young man, who is a relative of the parties addressed, has been taken care of, at public expense, in the city of Pittsburgh for the last eight years, and that it is now expected and desired that the friends of the young man shall either contribute to his support, or bring him back to his native country.

It does not appear that the young man has, or ever had, any relatives in the United States, or that he has acquired citizenship there. He was insane, as I am told, before being sent thither, and I am of the

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opinion that he was sent away for the purpose of putting him as a charge upon a foreign community. It is also my belief that no measures will be taken for his return, and probably none for his support.

I regret that I have not more exact information, including names and dates, concerning this case. I deem it my duty, however, to report the matter as it now appears, and shall communicate any more definite particulars that I may in future be able to obtain.

I beg to say further, that this office is constantly besieged for support by persons in real or pretended distress, who, though evidently not natives of the United States, claim to be citizens thereof. In at least nineteen cases out of twenty this claim is of a very dubious character, the pretense generally being that the documentary evidences of citizenship have been lost or taken possession of by the police. In one recent instance an able-bodied young man presented a passport from the Department less than a month old, and desired a contribution of money to pay his expenses back to New York. In other cases the citizenship once real has become very doubtful by reason of prolonged foreign residence, or other circumstances indicating total lack of intention or possibility, even, of ever returning to the United States. Some individuals of this latter class, now here, are hopeless invalids, and are supported mainly by private and individual charity, consisting chiefly of the voluntary contributions of American residents. The public institutions receive such persons, and all foreigners, very grudgingly, if at all, and discharge them at the first opportunity or plausible pretext.

In this connection, I desire to second, and decidedly commend to the attention of the Department, a suggestion which I have lately seen accredited to the Swiss consul-general at New York, to the effect that it is "no more than right that a foreigner who comes here [to the United States] and desires to become a citizen, should be required to produce a passport from the authorities of his native country to show that he is a person in good standing there." The only modification I would make to that suggestion would be that the certificates as to character should come from the official representatives of the United States abroad, and not from the authorities of the foreign country.

For the purpose of discouraging emigration, such authorities might refuse to grant the desired certificates, even in deserving cases, while at the same time the diplomatic and consular officers might be able to satisfy themselves in each case, from non-official sources, as to whether the intending emigrant is a person of good character or not.

I am aware that this would add much to the duties and responsibilities of consular officers, but it is at the same time a public service which they could perform and which would be of the highest importance. We gain nothing in the estimation of other countries, and certainly nothing in self-respect, by receiving and inviting indiscriminately all who choose to come to our shores, regardless of their conduct and character at home. It is, besides, a great wrong to the better class of immigrants that we, willingly or unwillingly, receive the worst classes of vagabonds, paupers, and criminals on precisely the same terms as we do the most respectable elements of society, and I know of no class who are more outspoken in condemnation of such lack of discrimination than our German-born citizens. Indeed, all intelligent foreign-born Americans must feel humiliated by it, and realize the importance, for their own sake, of preventing their being associated in the public mind with classes for whom they have themselves no respect.

Moreover, such a measure as that herein suggested, while it might effectually keep back nine-tenths of the classes who are of no use to us in the world but to fill our jails and poor-houses, would place no check

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on wholesome and proper immigration. On the contrary, it would rather promote immigration by elevating its quality and its respectability.

On the other hand, without some such restriction, it is impossible for consular officers to prevent the deportation of paupers and criminals. It is much cheaper, to say the least, to send such persons to another country than it is to support them at home; and it may be done so secretly that even the local authorities, to say nothing of foreign representatives, may know nothing about it. In fact, I have no doubt whatever that this is continually done, and that persons of which society desires to be rid are frequently deported to the United States by secret and private means from every country in Europe.

In the occasional instances of meditated deportation which have come to my knowledge, the authorities, on having their attention called to the matter, emphatically disclaimed all connivance with it. This disclaimer may have been perfectly sincere, and yet the criminal may have been at a later date gotten rid of, all the same. A consular officer cannot keep watch of such persons, but if, on being landed upon our shores, they were required to present a consular certificate of good character the case would be very different.

ALFRED E. LEE,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Frankfort-on-the-Main, December 20, 1880.

UNDERGROUND TELEGRAPHS.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL LEE.

The great interruptions to which telegraphic communication has been exposed in the United States the past winter, by reason of the violence of the elements, has suggested to my mind the propriety of reporting to the Department such additional facts of interest with reference to the underground telegraph system of Germany as were not embraced in my former dispatches. I have therefore prepared, and herewith forward, a statement as to the history, growth, extent, operations, and prospects of the German system of underground telegraph cables, giving, at the same time, some account of the manner in which those cables are constructed, and the cost of the same.

The method of laying the cables, and also the extent to which they were in use during the year 1877, were described in the dispatches above referred to. It is hoped that the additional facts now offered may be of some interest.

A. E. LEE,
Consul-General.

[Inclosure 1 in dispatch No. 265.]

UNDERGROUND TELEGRAPHS IN GERMANY.

The first experiment in underground telegraph conductors in Prussia was made during the years 1848–'49. Owing chiefly to defects in the means of insulation, the attempts made during that period were not successful. The influences of the ground upon the gutta-percha covering in which the wires were enveloped had not been suf-

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ficiently studied. The cables were not laid deep enough, and the provisions against accident had not been taken with sufficient care. The sulphur with which the insulating gutta-percha was mixed had also, in a short time, a damaging effect upon the wires. Owing to these various circumstances, a line which had been projected from Berlin to this city was built no farther than Eisenach.

In 1852 the experiment was made of inclosing the wires in leaden pipes, but this also failed.

Meanwhile the matter was taken up in England, and also in France, and careful scientific investigation was applied to the discovery of means of overcoming the various difficulties which had been encountered. The qualities of the gutta-percha were studied, the vulcanization of the same was rejected, the proper insulating composition was discovered, and suitable machines for compressing this material with uniform density around the wire were contrived. By the year 1875 these processes and experiments had so far progressed that a German commission of inquiry, dispatched in the summer of that year to England and France, reported strongly in favor of a public appropriation for building an experimental line with the new improvements. At the request of Dr. Stephan, chief of the bureau of posts and telegraphs, the appropriation was granted by the Reichstag, and within three months' time the proposed line was built from Berlin to Halle.

This line, 170 kilometers in length, gave such satisfactory results that its extension westward to Cassel, Frankfort, and Mayence, and northward to Hamburg, Altona, and Kiel, was immediately resolved upon. This extension was begun on the 1st day of March, 1877, and on the 23d of July following the western connection as far as Mayence was complete.

The system of underground telegraphs constructed since the year 1876, and now complete and in operation, comprises an aggregate of 5,240 kilometers of cable and 35,830 kilometers of conducting wires. Some of the cables have but four, but most of them have seven conductors. The system includes, up to this time, the following completed lines: 1. Berlin-Halle-Cassel; 2. Frankfort Mainz; 3. Halle-Leipzig; 4. Berlin-Hamburg; 5. Hamburg-Kiel; 6. Berlin-Magdeburg-Brunswick-Hanover-Munich-Münster-Wesel-Düsseldorff-Cologne-Elberfeld-Barmen; 7. Frankfort-Darmstadt-Mannheim-Carlsruhe-Rastatt-Kehl-Strasbourg; 8. Hamburg-Cuxhaven; 9. Hamburg-Bremen-Emden-Bremerhafen-Wilhelmshafen; 10. Cologne-Coblentz-Trèves-Metz; 11. Metz-Strasbourg; 12. Berlin-Dresden; 13. Königsberg-Dantzig-Stettin; 14. Dantzig-Thorn; 15. Thorn-Berlin; Berlin-Breslau. The three last lines were built during the year 1880.

Lines are now projected from Berlin to Stettin, and from Cologne to Aix-la-Chapelle, and will probably be completed during the present year. It is also proposed to construct lines from Königsberg to the Russian boundary near Eydtkuhmen, and from Breslau to the Austrian boundary near Oderberg. A complete system of underground telegraphs for the entire empire will be finished, it is believed, before the year 1883.

The cables employed are manufactured partly in Germany and partly in England. The principal contractors (Felton & Guilleaume, of Cologne) obtain the raw cable from England, and finish the same by enveloping it in a cordage covering at their extensive establishment at Mülheim-on-the-Rhine. The Berlin contractors, Messrs. Siemens & Halske, formerly obtained their cables also from England, but they now manufacture them at their own establishment.

The experience had in Germany resulted in the adoption substantially of the conclusions of a scientific commission, appointed to investigate the subject, as to the manner of constructing the cables. This commission recommended that each conductor consist of seven copper wires, each six-tenths of a millimeter in diameter, twisted into one cord. The cable should contain seven such conductors, insulated by double layers of gutta-percha, and enveloped in two layers of Chatterton compound, the first layer of the compound being next to and enveloping the wires, and the second intervening between the two layers of gutta-percha. The thickness of the single insulated conductors was fixed at 5 millimeters, and the thickness of the coverings of tarred hemp at 17 millimeters. The protective envelope of the cable was to consist of sixteen galvanized iron wires, each 4 millimeters in diameter, forming together a complete encompassment of the cable at each 25 or 26 centimeters of its extension, and fitting it firmly. Outside of all, the cable should be coated with inspissated coal-tar, free from creosote, and should receive a covering of the same substance after being laid in the trench. The single cable cords were to be made in sections of 800 meters, but as now supplied and used they have a length of 1,000 meters.

The process of laying the cables has been sufficiently described in the sketch accompanying my No. 47. The manner in which they are constructed is illustrated by the sample section of a cable ready for use forwarded with my No. 41.

In experience it has been found that the proper soldering together of the different sections in the laying is of the highest importance. Soldering which has not been

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done with the utmost care loses, in time, the power of isolation, and is a source of continual inconvenience in the working of the line.

When interruptions of the communication occur, their precise location is not difficult of detection. This fact renders repairs and alterations much less difficult and expensive than might be supposed.

The adoption of the underground system was brought about in Germany partly by the accidental interruptions to which overground lines are subject, and partly by military considerations. The cost of construction of the underground lines is 760 marks ($180.88) per kilometer, or more than four times that of the overground wires, which cost but 170 marks ($40.46) per kilometer. On the other hand, the expense (report for the year 1879) of keeping the underground lines in repair has been only 15 marks ($3.60) per kilometer, while the repairs of the overground lines have cost 10.70 marks ($2.45) per kilometer. It is calculated that if the subterranean lines last fifty-five years their aggregate cost will have been no greater than that of the lines above ground.

The cost of operating the two systems is substantially the same for both, and it is claimed that the cables laid in the ground are now operated with the same facility as the wires hung in the air. The differences between the systems consist mainly in the cost of construction, and the obviously greater security of the underground lines against interruption.

A. E. LEE,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Frankfort-on-the-Main, March 3, 1881.

AUSTRIAN BONDS AND FINANCES.

REPORT BY MINISTER KASSON.

Referring to my dispatch, No. 299, written in reply to a circular requesting information, I now have the honor to add the following statement touching the market value of the public credit of Austria.

By order of the government the "Crédit Foncier," a financial company of Vienna, disposed of 14,000,000 florins of *rente* at the best rate to be obtained in the market between the 3d and the 13th of January of this year. The net sum realized for the government was 10,175,986.91 florins. The average price paid per hundred was 72.84$\frac{7}{10}$ florins. The average price realized after deducting expenses of the loan was 72.68$\frac{5}{10}$ florins.

The loan was what is called "*papier rente;*" that is, the interest 5 per cent. payable in paper currency, and the loan is not reimbursable.

Of this loan, in all, there has been emitted by sale at the Bourse 110,777,500 florins, at fixed price 165,966,000 florins, a total of 276,743,500 florins.

The rate realized therefor since the emission of 1868 to the present time has varied from 57.17 to 72.68½, the rate received for the last emission.

The unsatisfactory condition of the public credit, as compared with western nations, is owing chiefly to the existing burdens of taxation, and to the difficulty of finding new sources of public revenue. It has proved impracticable to establish an equilibrium of the budget. There is an annual deficit of many millions which must be covered by new loans. Propositions for additional taxation are met by a cry from the people that more cannot be borne. In connection with the proposed new land-tax, a deputation of peasants from Upper Austria waited on the Emperor to protest against it, and one of them fell on his knees, and in the most touching manner implored the Emperor to help them in their great distress.

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The revenue returns of the empire for 1880 show but a slight amelioration of the depressed condition of the national industries.

JOHN A. KASSON,
Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary,

UNITED STATES LEGATION,
Vienna, February 8, 1881.

LEATHER GOODS AND TANNERIES OF SWITZERLAND.

REPORT BY CONSUL ADAMS, OF GENEVA.

Mr. Ernest Mercier, of Lausanne, in his report as member of the international jury, class 49, at the Paris Exposition of 1878, states that the manufacture of leather has declined in Switzerland greatly during the last thirty years. Formerly the home market was mostly supplied by the small tanneries, existing in great numbers, each of which produced nearly the whole variety of articles wanted in its neighborhood. The introduction of machinery and improved processes, a more perfect organization, the increase of railways, and the absence of high import duties, have enabled the tanneries of France, Germany, and England to occupy the market, so that numbers of the Swiss tanneries have disappeared. Several of the old branches of the manufacture have been abandoned, and none show any progress.

The custom-house returns since 1850 show that the exportation of skins and hides to be worked up abroad has largely increased, and their importation decreased, the contrary being true of the exportation and importation of leather; also the importation of certain articles, as sumac and fish-oil, used only in manufacturing leather, and not produced in Switzerland, has diminished.

As might be expected, however, special branches of the industry have been developed in recent years.

Switzerland has now a high reputation for sole-leather, patent leather, and calf-skin. In imitation of the great New England factories, the wholesale manufacture of boots and shoes is also assuming large proportions.

I think that, in these conditions, a market may be found here for certain varieties of American leather and leather goods, and for tanning extracts.

Mr. Mercier, noticing the constant efforts made in the United States to perfect their manufactures, speaks highly of the quality and cheapness of oak-tanned leather, whose competition with the European article, he says, is daily more formidable. But he finds hemlock-tanned leather inferior. He recommends also American leathers for saddlery and military equipments, and for belting (*courroies de transmission*), and American morocco, tinted leather, and imitations of goat-skin, all of which, he says, are beginning to be imported in Europe.

Mr. F. Stradler, of Geneva, a prominent manufacturer of fine boots and shoes, furnishes me the following memorandum, giving the selling price here at wholesale of certain leathers and of boots and shoes:

	Per kilo.
Sole leather, solid: Swiss, first quality	$0 93
Swiss, second quality	77
French, first quality	93
French, second quality	$0 77 to 0 81

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Washed sole-leather: Swiss, first quality	$0 81
Swiss, second quality	73
French, first quality	89
French, second quality	$0 73 to 0 77
Buenos Ayres and other foreign	75 to 83

Patent-leather, Swiss, according to weight and quality, from $1.54 to $2.50 the kilo; French, $1.74 to $3.47; solid upper leather, grained (*vache grainée, quadrillée*), according to weight and mark, from $1.08 to $1.25 the kilo.

The Swiss factories, some of which employ from 1,000 to 2,000 workmen, turn out great numbers of boots and shoes, both hand and machine sewed, which sell here at wholesale from 15 cents and upward for children's shoes and 60 cents and upward for ladies'. The average price for good shoes with elastics (*bottines elastiques*) is about 60 cents to $1.35 (children's), $1.60 (ladies'), and $2.70 (men's). These are all made with special attention to solidity.

Large numbers of *sabots* (leather shoes with wooden soles) are made for this market in France and Switzerland, and sell at wholesale for from 77 cents to $1.54.

I applied some time ago to the federal bureau of commerce and agriculture at Berne for the statistics of imports and exports of leather, &c., but have as yet no answer. I know that there is a large exportation of boots and shoes to Brazil, and I suggest that whether the United States can compete or not with other nations for the Swiss market, they should be able to compete with the Swiss for the South American.

LYELL T. ADAMS,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Geneva, February 7, 1881.

EMBROIDERY INDUSTRY OF ST. GALLE.

REPORT OF CONSUL DE ZEYK.

The following table exhibits the yearly amounts of embroideries exported from St. Galle to the United States:

	Francs.
1866	7,789,771.26
1867	4,930,161.58
1868	4,534,940.62
1869	6,280,680.73
1870	8,335,980.85
1871	11,809,409.30
1872	13,300,419.57
1873	13,879,379.84
1874	17,970,905.85
1875	16,822,134.52
1876	15,611,227.85
1877	17,098,857.49
1878	18,839,346.87
1879	21,451,936.82
1880	25,913,256.31

From these embroideries, entered during the last year into the various ports, the United States revenue has received, at the lowest rate of 35 per cent., the amount of $1,550,440 duty, and therefore I presume, that without entering here into the history of the Swiss embroidery more properly a subject for my annual report, it will not be amiss to submit for the Department's publication monthly reports of the phases of this industry, which after having well attained its point of culmination,

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stands to-day so near to self-destruction, more through the cause of its over-expansion than through any real danger of concurrence.

The embroidery market at St. Galle is more frequented in the months of December and January, partly because the merchants and manufacturers are busy with their yearly accounts, and also because most of the goods to be gotten for export are, by this time, under process of being prepared if not already shipped. There was, however, within the last fourteen years hardly experienced such a stand-still in business transactions as during the past two months, which has reduced the prices by fully 15 per cent., and which makes many a machine lie idle, as a great many of the owners declare, only to lose money at present rates of pay, and would prefer shutting up their factories if it would not be for the distress of the workmen which it would produce, who, thrown out of factories, could not engage in the winter season in field or other work.

The principal reason of the fall in the working loan lies in over-production. There are at present enormous quantities of embroideries accumulated in St. Galle warehouses, of which, even at the rate of millions' worth shipped across the seas, would only help to increase the stock of supplies in the commercial centers.

The seemingly steady increase of exports to the United States was the last hope, and even this is now dampened by the late news that the change of fashion during the coming season would be still more pronounced for the Nottingham articles, which not only imitate to perfection the St. Galle articles, but are also readily sold, with gilt letters printed on them, as "Swiss embroideries."

From the above it follows that the immediate future of the machine embroidery is not very bright. In the meanwhile there seems to be a decided increase in the demand for better qualities; the coarse execution of designs could, of course, not give a lasting satisfaction, because people found out that they were too dear at the lowest figures, and if only this change from the inferior to the better qualities would, as it promises, be generalized, it could more than recompense the fall in the quantity of production.

It is, therefore, of vital importance that the manufacturer should be anxious to improve his designs as well as their execution, in both which there was very little done of late years; and if this industry wants to hold its own, the collection of samples must inevitably show a constant improvement in style.

In summing up, the interest of the St. Galle industry would be better served if the manufacturers would only execute the orders in the measure as they come in, and if, instead of manufacturing ahead of the anticipated demands, they would improve their designs and samples.

A. J. DE ZEYK,
Consul.

UNITED STATES COMMERCIAL AGENCY,
St. Galle, February 21, 1881.

SICK EMBROIDERERS—AN ORGANIZATION FOR THEIR AID

REPORT BY CONSUL DEZEYK ON ITS SALUTARY INFLUNCES AND RESULTS.

I have the honor to give herewith a detailed description of the "Central Union," a society established for the assistance of the sick embroiderers, as an example of the salutary effects of this effort for the healthy development of industrial reforms.

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This society, which extends over the three cantons of St. Galle, Appenzell, and Thurgan, was founded in the year 1870, and at the end of 1879 already numbered 19 sections, with 1,522 members. Each of these sections is independent of the others and is superintended by a central committee; the central committee is obliged to aid those sections which may need it out of the central case of funds, which is founded by annual contributions of the members; the sections are obliged to allow a member, in case of illness, the sum of 12 francs for a weekly support, to the sum of 500 francs, in case his illness continues so long, and to give, in case of death, 20 francs towards the burial expense. Each member has to pay a monthly contribution of 1 franc to the treasury of his section, and annually 50 centimes to the central case. Each accepted member, when removing to another place, has the right to enter gratis as a member into the emoluments of another section if he can produce a written evidence that he has paid at the other place all his contributions, and any section has to accept him as such member. In this manner a continuous right to usufruct is secured to every member.

Each section administers its own interest, but has to give every year an account to the central committee; it remains, however, the owner of its property, even if it should entirely retire from the Union.

That the Central Union is a benefit not to be undervalued for the embroidering population is proved beyond doubt by what it has hitherto accomplished. Thus the central case has received from 1870 to 1879 8,317.07 francs, of which 4,157.60 francs were annual and 858 francs voluntary contributions and presents; 510.60 francs interest of an unimpeachable capital, founded by some embroidering manufacturers; 347.95 francs interest of the funded capital.

The treasury has expended in this space of time 5,311.60 francs, of which 2,350 francs were for needy sections.

The sections together have received in the same space of time 94,198.14 francs, 79,441 francs of which are monthly contributions of the members, 1,435 francs fees of entrance, 1,148.60 francs fines, 1,609.41 francs interest of the capital, 2,647.40 francs voluntary contributions and presents.

The expenditures amounted to 72,614.22 francs, 59,664.60 francs for supporting 1,494 patients, with 31,860 days of illness, 760 francs for contributions towards burials of 38 deceased members, making altogether 60,424.60 francs.

The central case possessed at the end of the year 1879 2,963.27 francs. The accounts of the sections altogether exhibited a surplus of 20,468 27 francs; 15,000 francs of this amount is deposited with different banks, on interest.

In view of this prosperity of the Central Union, as well as of its several sections, and considering the very simple and economical manner in which the whole Union is administered, every member or section has the satisfactory assurance that, even in time of a severe crisis, the Central Union will be equal to the demands which may be made upon it.

What has mainly promoted the Union to its present prosperous condition is due to the efficacy of its statutes, revised in the year 1875, which rest upon a liberal basis, and essentially contribute to the advancement of the Union.

Since the year 1878 there has been founded by the members of the Central Union a society for assistance in case of death, into which not only men, but also the women, are admitted with a moderate contribution. That this institution is not superfluous is shown by the fact that during the two years of its existence it acquired more than 600 members.

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OBJECT OF CENTRAL UNION.

ARTICLE 1. The Central Union is established for the purpose of securing to every section entering the Union for assistance of sick embroiderers, its existence and usefulness, upon the basis of reciprocity.

GENERAL DEFINITION.

ART. 2. The direction of the business is managed by a central committee, consisting of president, treasurer, secretary, and two assessors.

ART. 3. In the Central Union can enter definitively-constituted societies for the aid of sick embroiderers of at least fifteen members; a central committee is to decide about their acceptance; the new or revised statutes of the sections must be submitted to the latter for its examination.

ART. 4. The sections entering into the Central Union are allowed to receive into their society only such embroiderers which are permanently employed in the factories, and who have passed their eighteenth year and are not over fifty years of age, and who belong, besides the section, to no more than one society for the aid of sick persons. Hospitals, parish infirmaries, and regular contributors for the sick must be considered as societies; no member of the Central Union is allowed to enter into a third society for the aid of the sick.

ART. 5. Any person can enter free up to thirty years; from those over thirty years an entrance money is to be levied in favor of the treasury of the sections, viz: From the thirtieth to the fortieth year, 1 franc; from the fortieth to the forty-fifth year, 2 francs; from the forty-fifth to the fiftieth year, 3 francs.

ART. 6. The sections are obliged to collect, in the month of January, from every member, an annual contribution of 50 centimes for the ensuing year, and to forward the same without delay to the president of the Central Union. In cases of distress, the central committee is authorized to collect a contribution up to 50 centimes per member out of the treasury of the sections.

ART. 7. The sections must raise a monthly contribution of 1 franc from every member for the case; whoever does not pay up for three months is to be considered excluded.

ART. 8. A member who is three months in the union, and has paid four monthly contributions, has the right to claim assistance in case of suffering or inability to work. The weekly assistance to patients amounts from 12 up to 500 francs; should a sick member receive said assistance during the course of a whole year, with or without interruption, he must, afterwards, be able to work half a year before he can again claim assistance.

ART. 9. From assistance are excluded syphilitical venereal diseases, or illness contracted by debauch or resulting from fighting; about admission of other exclusions proposed by the sections the central committee has to decide.

ART. 10. Should a sick member remove from the circle of a section into another, he remains still a member of the first section until he is entitled to assistance for the same illness; should a member become sick during the first week after his entrance, the last left section has to pay one-half of the whole assistance.

ART. 11. Every member has to be provided with the statutes of the Central Union; it has to be furnished under his name for 50 centimes; at the producing of this book of statutes every section is obliged to receive him as a member if it is proven therein that the bearer owes no arrears or fines, and that he was not out of a society over a month.

ART. 12. Every one admitted into the Central Union remains to all purposes its member under the stipulations of the respective central or sectional statutes until his declaration to abandon it, and as long as he is complying with the statutory obligations and is employed in Switzerland; but he has to enter into the section of the place of his residence or into that of a neighboring place.

ART. 13. The accounts must be balanced in every section by the 31st of December of every year, and under the direction of the central committee; an extract of it must be sent to the president of the Central Union in the month of February.

ART. 14. Sections going out or excluded from the Central Union are obliged to pay over to the central treasury all contributions still due; after which all mutual obligations or relation between sections and Central Union will cease. Immediately after the central president is obliged to inform every section president of the same in writing.

TREASURY.

ART. 15. The funds of the Central Union are made up from contributions by the members and by the sections, from occasional presents, and from the interests of its own as well as from that of the funded capital of the employers; the surplus funds must be laid out on interest according to the direction of the central committee. All valuable papers and every change in them must be registered.

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USUFRUCT.

ART. 16.—If a section could no longer meet the statutory expenses out of its own case, it has the right to solicit the assistance of the central treasury, which has to dispense with assistance provided for by Art. 1.

ORGANIZATION.

ART. 17.—A general assembly is to be held ordinarily in every month of May; each selection of fifty members sends its president to the assembly; larger sections are authorized to elect, to every fifty members, a delegate out of their active members; on the convening of the general assembly the yearly accounts have to be remitted to and forwarded by the delegates.

ART. 18.—The general assembly has to discharge the following business:

1. The calling of the rolls.
2. The election of vote—counters.
3. The reading of the records of the last general assembly.
4. The inquiring into the doings of the meetings of the central committee and the eventual reading of its records.
5. The reception of the yearly accounts.
6. Report of the commissioners to examine the accounts.
7. Appointment of the section which has to elect the president, treasurer, and secretary from among the active members.
8. Election of two assessors into the central committee from the several selections.
9. Election of three revisors of accounts and of two substitutes.
10. Final settlement of complaints of the selections against the central committee or *vice versa*.
11. Allotment of an occasional gratification of the central committee.
12. Consideration of sundry bills and resolutions.

ART. 19. The members of the central committee must attend the general assembly, but, with the exception of their president, have only debating votes.

ART. 20. Eligible is every member who is a respectable citizen and who has begun his twenty-fifth year of age; every member has to accept an election for the duration of a year.

FUNCTIONS OF THE COMMITTEE.

ART. 21. (*a.*) The president of the central committee is the chairman of the general assembly; he must call the meetings of the central committee whenever needed; as a leader of the union he must open all correspondence and dispatch all letters already registered and signed by himself.

(*b.*) The treasurer manages all receipts and expenditures; he keeps a journal or day-book which gives correct account, as well as a cash-book in which the receipts and expenditures are summarily entered, and has to submit an annual final amount to the examination of the revisers.

(*c.*) The secretary keeps the records of the meetings of the general assembly and of that of the committee and dispatches all correspondence intrusted to him by the president.

ART. 22. The central committee has to deposit in the archives all valuable papers and correspondence; the keeping of the archives and its keys is committed to the care of the members.

The chief section *ad interim* is accountable to the Central Union for its property.

The central committee has to settle complaints presented to it by single members, in writing; such definitions in the statutes of the sections, and such of their resolutions which are in contradiction with the statutes of the Union are to be canceled by the central committee.

ART. 24. Should the central committee contain members belonging to the contending sections, there is an election of substitutes for them, to take place from among the presidents of the several other sections; sections which will not submit to the findings of the central committee may be excluded from the general assembly.

ART. 25. The members of the central committee, as well as the revisers of accounts, receive for their attendance at meetings the railroad fares, and, if this cannot be used, 50 centimes, for every hour's distance, out of the central treasury.

ART. 26. The chief section is obliged to communicate at once to the sections and to the retiring president the addresses of the members elect to the central committee; at the changing of the central committee the newly chosen has to invite the former committee to its first session for the purpose, the delivery, and the accepting of the charges.

FINAL DEFINITIONS.

By a resolution of the general assembly the present statistics can be subjected to a revision.

The majority of all the members also can petition by writing the central committee

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for revision of the statutes, which will be conclusive and must be obeyed; in both cases there is a commission to be named for it by the general assembly.

ART. 28. The revised central statutes are to be submitted to the approval of the sections; which have to return the result of their voting to the central committee within a month's time; selections not complying with these regulations must renounce their right to vote.

ART. 29. There is a simple majority required in all voting; the final decision belongs to the president.

ART. 30. The Central Union cannot be dissolved as long as two sections or a hundred members still vote for its continuance; but should it ever dissolve, the funds subscribed by the employers must be returned to them without requittal of interest; the rest of the property must be divided among the sections which have still belonged to the Central Union, according to the number of their members.

ART. 31. The central committee declares the above statutes in force as soon as the result of the vote has shown that the majority of the voters has accepted them.

ART. 32. With the enactment of these central statutes all dispositions of the statutes of the sections which are in contradiction with them are annulled.

ART. 33. The several sections will signify their acceptance of these statutes by affixing the seal of their sections and the signature of their presidents, giving thereby to them a binding force.

A. J. DEZEYK.

UNITED STATES COMMERCIAL AGENCY.
St. Galle, January 28, 1881.

A NATIONAL BUREAU OF WEIGHTS AND MEASURES IN FRANCE.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL WALKER.

SIR: I have the honor to transmit herewith a report made by the honorable the minister of agriculture and commerce to the President of the republic, recommending the creation of a national scientific bureau of weights and measures, and the decrees of the honorable the President of the republic founded thereon.

The purpose of these public documents is to determine scientifically, and to guard and perpetuate the types of the meter and the kilogram—the basis of the metric system. An important function of the new bureau will be to determine the equations of the units of the metric system in terms of those adopted under systems prevailing in foreign countries.

GEORGE WALKER,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Paris, 1880.

[Translation.]

REPORT TO THE PRESIDENT OF THE FRENCH REPUBLIC.

PARIS, *October* 6, 1880.

MR. PRESIDENT: To France belongs the honor of having founded the metric system of weights and measures.

By article 1 of the law of August 1, 1793, the National Convention, convinced that uniformity of weights and measures is one of the greatest benefits which could be accorded to all French citizens, decreed that the new system of weights and measures, based on the measurement of the meridian of the earth and upon the decimal system, should be uniformly adopted in all the territory of the republic.

The law of 18th Germinal of year III (April 7, 1797), which gave a practical sanction to this decision, decided in its first article that there should be for the whole republic only one standard of weights and measures, namely, a scale of platinum, upon which should be traced the meter, adopted as the fundamental unit of the entire system of measures.

The law of 19th Brumaire, year VIII (November 9, 1801), completes the system and provides that the meter and the kilogram of platinum deposited on the 4th Messidor preceding (June 22, 1801) in the Corps Legislative, by the National Institute of Sciences and Arts, shall be established as the measures of length and weight throughout the Republic.

It was then foreseen that the metric system was likely to become universally adopted,

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and the law of the year VIII determined that a medal should be struck for the purpose of transmitting to posterity the memory of the epoch when the metric system had been established. The principal surface of this medal has this inscription, "To all times and to all peoples."

The universal expositions contributed materially to the greater appreciation of the superiority and practical simplicity of the French system.

After 1869 a very marked movement in favor of this system took place among engineers and savants in foreign countries. The use of the metric system introduced into chemical and physical laboratories, into the construction of instruments of precision, into the workshops of even the heavy machinery of railways, all indicated that the epoch was approaching when the adoption of the metric system would receive a universal character.

In order to assist this movement, the French Government established, by a decree of September, 1869, an international metric commission. This decree designated the members comprising the French section of the commission, which was charged with the preparation of a legal copy, in the form of a divided meter, of the undivided meter deposited in the archives.

The 8th of August, 1870, the international commission began its sittings: its mission was soon extended and made to comprise the establishment of a prototype of the kilogram.

The French section, charged with the duty of making an alloy and with the preparation of the meter and of the kilogram, with the concurrence and under the control of a permanent international committee, devoted itself to that task, and when its labors were sufficiently advanced, a diplomatic metric conference was convoked at Paris, March 1, 1875.

This conference resulted in a convention by which sixteen states engaged to establish and to maintain at common expense an international, scientific, and permanent bureau of weights and measures, which should have its seat at Paris. It was stipulated in the treaty that this bureau should act under the direction and exclusive supervision of an international committee of weights and measures, which should in turn be placed under the authority of a general conference formed of delegates of all the contracting governments.

Article 6 of the treaty determines the functions of the international bureau, which is especially charged with making all the comparisons and verifications of the new prototypes of the meter and of the kilogram, with the preservation of international prototypes, and the periodic comparison of the national standards with the international prototypes and with their proofs.

The labors of the French section will be soon complete. It has accomplished its task with a scientific competence and a devotedness which is worthy of the highest recognition. The divisionary meters in platinum, iridium alloy, and the kilogram formed of the same material, have been placed by the French section at the disposal of the international committee of weights and measures, which has adopted them.

It remains to have prepared the meters and kilograms called for by the nations who have signed the treaty or by other nations who have not yet given their adhesion to it. It remains also to determine, with all the precision that science affords, the respective equations of the standards. This work demands a permanent depository for the instruments of comparison analogous to that which has been effected by the international bureau at the pavilion of Breluil; it demands, also, a long study of the instruments themselves, for the purpose of discovering the errors which may have attended in the use of them, a study which should be made by competent and experienced persons.

The preservation of the copies remaining in France is also of considerable importance. The different countries of Europe have, for the purpose of meeting their scientific needs, established metrological bureaus at home. It has seemed to me that France, the country from which emanated the movement for unifying the weights and measures which the whole civilized world is adopting, ought equally to possess a national metrological bureau, scientific and permanent, always ready to perform the most delicate operations which the creation or comparison of standards demands.

We cannot consider the works relating to metrology as finished. French savants have been reproached for being somewhat indifferent to these questions since the establishment of the metric system, while other countries have made them the subject of a careful investigation. It is because we have not confided the case of these questions to a permanent institution, and that the "Conservatoire des Arts et Metiers" has sufficed for the usual needs of ordinary metrology, nothing has been constituted in view of the scientific aspects of the subjects.

It seems to me that the time has arrived for creating a national metrological bureau in France. Independently of the high scientific objects which I have explained above, such a bureau would be charged with the preparation of the standard meters and kilograms that may be called for by the nations that took no part in the treaty of 1875.

In view of these considerations, I have the honor, Mr. President, to submit to your

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approbation the draft of a decree which establishes the national metrological bureau of France.

For the purpose of giving a serious direction to metrological studies, and of securing the protection of the standards, I am of the opinion that the bureau should be composed principally of representatives of the great scientific establishments to which I propose to you to confide the models of the prototypes. I have added to these other members whose functions seem to designate them as proper persons to form a part of the bureau.

I trust, Mr. President, that you will be pleased to approve this organization, which is calculated to contribute in an important manner to the extension of the French metric system, which ought soon to become the universal metric system.

Accept, Mr. President, the assurances of my profound respect.

P. TIRARD,
Minister of Agriculture and of Commerce.

The President of the French Republic, on the report of the minister of agriculture and commerce—

In view of article 1 of the law of August 1, 1793;

In view of article 1 of the law of 18th Germinal, year III (April 7, 1797);

In view of article 1 of the law of 19th Brumaire, year VIII (November 9, 1801);

In view of the law of July 4, 1837;

In view of the decree of September 1, 1869;

In view of so much of the convention signed at Paris on the 20th of May, 1875, as concerns the establishment of an international bureau of weights and measures;

In view of the proceedings of the meetings of the international metric commission;

In view of the letter of the international committee of weights and measures to the ministry of foreign affairs, under the date of September 28, 1880, calling the attention of the government of the republic to the necessity of taking the necessary measures for hastening the completion of the labors relating to the establishment of the prototypes;

Considering that it is important on the one hand to confide to a permanent national bureau the task of investigating and resolving the different questions which have relation to scientific practical metrology;

Considering, on the other hand, that in order to facilitate in future the operations which relate to the creation and comparisons of prototypes or standards, it is desirable to authorize to act in correspondence with the international bureau of weights and measures—

Decrees:

ARTICLE 1. There shall be created at Paris a permanent national scientific bureau of weights and measures.

ART. 2. The headquarters of the bureau shall be at the "Conservatoire des Arts et Metiers."

ART. 3. It shall be composed of fourteen members, to wit:

Messrs. J. B. Dumas, permanent secretary of the Academy of Sciences, president;

J. Bartrand, permanent secretary of the Academy of Sciences, vice-president;

Maury, director-general of the national archives;

Hervé Mangon, director of the "Conservatoire des Arts et Metiers";

Sainte-Claire Deville, professor in the faculty of sciences;

Colonel Perrier, member of the bureau of longitudes;

Admiral Monchez, director of the observatory of Paris;

Laussédat, director of the studies of the Ecole Polytechnique;

Péligot, director of the assay laboratory of the mint, Paris;

Debroy, master of conferences at the Superior Normal School;

Mascaet, professor in the College of France;

Mayer, chief engineer of material and of fraction of the Chemin de Fer de l'Ouest, member of the council of improvement of the Central School of Arts and Manufactures;

Girard, director of interior commerce at the ministry of agriculture and of commerce;

Genot, chief verifier of weights and measures at Paris.

ART. 4. A copy of the prototypes of the meter and the kilogram shall be deposited in each of the following places: The Institute, the National Archives, the Conservatorie des Arts et Metiers, the Observatory of Paris.

ART. 5. Every five years there shall be made under the direction of the national bureau of weights and measures precise comparisons between these prototypes and a verification of their respective equations. A record of its proceedings shall be prepared.

ART. 6. A delegation of the national bureau of weights and measures shall ascertain each year that the meter and the kilogram deposited in the archives in the year VIII are receiving there such care as will secure their preservation. A record of the examination shall be made by the delegates and by the director-general of the archives.

ART. 7. The French section, which in virtue of article 4 of the temporary arrange-

ments of the convention of May 20, 1875, is charged with the construction of new prototypes in concert with the international committee, will be aided in its labors by the national bureau of weights and measures, in order to hasten the completion of the same.

ART. 8. After the completion of the labors of the French section the national bureau of weights and measures will proceed, whenever occasion shall require, in concert with the international bureau, to the examination of the chemical, physical, and mechanical properties of the meter or kilogram ordered by the French Government.

ART. 9. The minister of agriculture and of commerce is charged with the execution of the present decree, which shall be published in the "Journal Officiel" and inserted in the "Bullitin des Lois."

Done at Paris the 8th day of October, 1880.

By the President of the Republic:

JULES GREVY.

P. TIRARD,
Minister of Agriculture and Commerce.

THE NEW FRENCH TARIFF ON SUGARS.

REPORT AND TRANSLATION BY CONSUL-GENERAL WALKER.

I inclose herewith the new French tariff on sugars, with a translation of the same into English.

GEORGE WALKER,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE GENERAL,
Paris, France, February 18, 1881.

[Translation.]

THE NEW TARIFF ON SUGARS.

(Chocolates, fruits, preserves, &c.)

The two following tables show the modifications in the official tariff on duties resulting from the law of August 19, 1880, on the reduction of duties on sugars.

Conventional tariff.

IMPORT DUTIES.

Description.	Units on which the duties are levied.	Collection, when authorized.	Duties (tenths included) not subject to the 4 per cent. additional.
			Francs.
Powdered sugars (103) the estimated product of which is, when refined—			
98 per cent. or less, beet root	100 kilos net, of refined sugars.	May 1, 1861 July 19, 1880	
98 per cent. or less, cane	do	July 11, 1866 July 19, 1880	
More than 98 per cent	100 kilos net (effective weight).	Oct. 12, 1880	48.00
Refined sugars (103)—			
Other than candies	do	July 19, 1880	
Candies	do	Oct. 12, 1860 July 17, 1880	51.00
Molasses (104) for distillation	100 kilos gross	May 1, 1861	Exempt.
Molasses, other than for distillation (see general tariff)	do	May 1, 1861	Exempt.
Sirups (105)	100 kilos net	Oct. 12, 1860 July 19, 1880	48.00
Bonbons (sweetmeats) (106)			
Sugar biscuits (106½)	do	Oct. 12, 1860 July 19, 1880	24.00
Fruits preserved in sugar or honey (106½)	do	July 11, 1866	22.00
Preserves (comfitures) (107) in sugar or honey			
Preserves without sugar or honey	100 kilos gross	Jan. 17, 1863	8.00
Chocolate (472)	100 kilos net	May 1, 1861 July 19, 1880	81.50

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General tariff.

IMPORT DUTIES.

Description.	Units on which the duties are levied.	Collection, when authorized.	Duties (tenths and 4 per cent. comprised) except when in regard to the 4 per cent. the cases of its application are expressly indicated.		
			Products of European origin.	Products of non-European origin.	
				Imported directly from outside of Europe.	Imported through the entrepôts of Europe.
			Francs.	*Francs.*	*Francs.*
Sugars (103) from French colonies and possessions:					
Powdered (including white powdered) according to their estimated products when refined.	100 kilos net (refined sugar).	July 19, 1880	.....	40.00	.....
Refined, other than candies ...	100 kilos net (effective weight).	....do	.....	40.00	.....
Refined candies	....do	....do	.....	43.00	.....
Foreign sugars (103):					
Powdered, of which the presumed product after refining is 98 per cent. or less.	100 kilos net (refined sugar).	....do	40 francs plus 3 francs per 100 kilos net on the effective weight.	40.00	40 francs plus 3 francs per 100 kilos net on the effective weight.
Powdered, of which the presumed product after refining is more than 98 per cent.	100 kilos net (effective weight).	....do	52.50	52.50	52.50
Refined, other than candies ...	....do	....do	52.50	52.50	52.50
Refined candies	....do	....do	56.50	56.50	56.50
Molasses (104) for distillation:					
From French colonies and possessions.*	100 kilos gross.	July 3, 1861 / May 16, 1863	.....	Exempt...	.....
From foreign countries	....do	May 1, 1867 / Dec. 30, 1873	3 francs liable to 4 per cent. additional	Exempt	3 francs liable to 4 per cent. additional
Molasses (104), other than for distillation, having in absolute saccharine richness—					
50 per cent. or less	100 kilos net	Jan. 30, 1872 / Dec. 30, 1873 / July 19, 1880	12.00	12.00	12 francs plus 3 francs liable to 4 per cent. additional
More than 50 per cent	....do	Jan. 30, 1872 / Dec. 30, 1873 / July 19, 1880	25.50	25.50	25.50 plus 3 francs liable to 4 per cent. additional
Sirup (105):					
From the colonies and French possessions.*	....do	July 19, 1880	.....	40.00	.....
From foreign countries	....do	....do	52.50	52.50	52.50
Bonbons (sweetmeats) (106):					
From French colonies and possessions.	....do	....do	.....	40.00	.....
From foreign countries	....do	....do	52.50	52.50	52.50
Fruits preserved in sugar (106 *bis*):					
From French possessions and colonies.*	....do	....do	.....	40.00	.....
From foreign countries	....do	....do	52.50	52.50	52.50
Sugared biscuits (106 *ter*):					
From French colonies and possessions.*	....do	....do	.....	40.00	.....
From foreign countries	....do	....do	26.25	26.25	26.25

*Those products are considered as from the French colonies and possessions which are imported directly.

General tariff—Continued.

IMPORT DUTIES.

Description.	Units on which the duties are levied.	Collection, when authorized.	Duties (tenths and 4 per cent. comprised) except when in regard to the 4 per cent. the cases of its application are expressly indicated.		
			Products of European origin.	Products of non-European origin.	
				Imported directly from outside of Europe.	Imported through the entrepôts of Europe.
			Francs.	*Francs.*	*Francs.*
Preserves (comfitures) (107) in sugar or honey:					
From the French colonies and possessions.	100 kilos net.	July 19, 1880	.....	20.00	.....
From foreign countries.....	....do	....do	26.25	26.25	26.25
Preserves (107) with neither sugar nor honey.	....do	May 16, 1863; Jan. 30, 1872; Dec. 30, 1873	12 francs liable to 4 per cent. additional	12 francs liable to 4 per cent. additional	15 francs liable to 4 per cent. additional
Chocolate (472)	....do	Jan. 30, 1872; Dec. 30, 1873; July 19, 1880	88.00	88.00	88 francs plus 3 francs liable to 4 per cent. additional

FRENCH TARIFF ON AMERICAN FLOUR AND WHEAT.

REPORT AND TRANSLATION BY VICE-DEPUTY CONSUL-GENERAL HOOPER.

I have the honor to transmit herewith the text of a petition, with translation, which has been addressed to the French senate by a delegation of French millers, praying for an increase of duty on American flour imported into France, or, that it be not allowed entrance save on the same equality as wheat, the delegation claiming that the projected tariff, as set forth in the petition, is prejudicial to the milling industry of France, and that it is not in accordance with French interests to admit foreign manufactured products on better terms than the raw material.

ROBT. M. HOOPER,
Vice-Deputy C. G.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Paris, France, March 1, 1881.

[Translation.]

CUSTOMS DUTIES UPON FLOUR AND WHEAT.

We communicate the text of a petition which has been addressed to the senate by a delegation of French millers, and which we think it our duty to publish as matter of information. We see that these petitioners accept in principle a liberal introduction of foreign wheat, with a duty of 60 centimes per 100 kilograms (12 cents for 220 pounds). But they find the proposed duty of 1 franc 40 centimes per 100 kilograms

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(28 cents for 220 pounds) of flour insufficient, which leaves, they say, to the American miller a profit of 6 to 7 per cent. for these importations, to the detriment of the French miller who receives the American wheat. On account of the cost for transportation, which is much more considerable for the wheat than for the flour, the French miller paying too dearly for the first when it comes from America, be it understood, naturally cannot deliver the flour for less than 13 francs 80 centimes for 100 kilograms ($2.66 for 220 pounds), while the American flour can be sold for 11 francs 20 centimes ($2.16). Also, while declaring themselves free-traders, they find that the importation of American flour is not a fair exchange. As to the interest of the consumer, he is sufficiently insured by the increased duty on foreign wheat.

We wish to draw attention to the fact that if the claims of the millers are listened to, it will be the farmers who will complain in their turn, because the small advancement of the duty on American flour is equivalent for them to a protective tariff on the wheat of the same country, because really that which the consumer buys is not the wheat but the flour. If the French millers cannot change at small cost the American wheat into flour, they will cease to buy, preferring their national wheat. Nevertheless, the logical conclusion of the complaint of the French millers will not be the increasing of the duty on flour, but the suppression of the duty on wheat. The millers would have the American wheat at low rates; the farmers desire that they may be high. It is, in truth, very difficult to satisfy both parties. This is the most embarrassing point to which a protective tariff system leads us, even a system the most mitigated. The petition of the delegation of French millers is as follows:

MESSIEURS LES SÉNATEURS: At the moment when the senate commences to discuss the duty upon flour, allow us to draw your attention to the present situation of the French millers through the growth of the importation of flour from the United States. The increase of importation is as follows:

	Barrels.
1879	4,230,242
1878	2,792,236
1877	1,501,979

This increase, which really only dates back a year, has remained unnoticed because of its recent date, and for the reason that the public attention was absorbed by the situation of England, where the two last harvests were so calamitous that they were obliged to import three-quarters of the flour consumed. In the mean time it is an error to suppose that this immense deficit has prevented the English millers from feeling the effect of the increase of importations of American flour. We have only to read the English papers in order to be posted on this point. This has resulted in an embarrassment the most annoying in the markets of the country. It is not to be doubted that on the return of the usual harvest of England the American flour will find a market much more difficult; consequently the Americans will have to find a new channel. It is in the market the most important next to England, that is to say in the French market, that the increase of production will be necessarily directed. To dissipate all doubts in this regard, it is simply necessary to draw attention to what has already been experienced with the American wheat. For some time it has been directed towards the English market; at a later period, on account of the progression of the harvests, it has appeared on our coast, and to-day it invades the whole country.

The experience of the past should not be forgotten by us; what has happened with the wheat is likely to occur with the flour. The continuation of increase in the importation of American flour is also the more certain that they have reduced the rates of transportation 25 per cent., and send us the wheat in the shape of flour instead of in the form of grain; 100 kilograms (220 pounds) of wheat is reduced to 75 kilograms (165 pounds) of flour. The exportation of flour would consequently gradually take the place of the wheat. The situation in which such a state of affairs places our milling industry comes from what exists. To-day the millers of the United States, as practical people, establish their mills in the heart of the States that produce the wheat, such as Minnesota, Wisconsin, Dakota, Iowa, &c. Following the wheat and the flour from its departure from America until its arrival in France, the expenses of transportation from Minneapolis, Minn., the center of the grain-producing and milling interest, the most important, which we may take as an example, are, by employing the most economical route, that of the lakes and canals, 10 centimes (2 cents) the 100 kilograms for wheat and flour. The duties in France, according to the projected tariff of the custom-house are 60 centimes (12 cents) on 100 kilograms of wheat and 1 franc 20 centimes (23 cents) on 100 kilograms of flour. Taking for a basis that to get 100 kilograms of flour we must have 130 kilograms (286 pounds) of wheat, it follows that 100 kilograms of flour made in France from American wheat, having to support the costs of transportation, amounts to 13 francs ($2.50), and on paying the custom-house duty of 78 centimes (15 cents) amounts in all to 13 francs 78 centimes ($2.65), while the same amount of flour made in America and brought to France pays only 10 francs ($1.93) for transportation

and 1 franc 20 centimes (23 cents) customs duty, making a total of 11 francs 20 cen- ($2.16). The difference in favor of the American miller on 100 kilograms is 2 francs 58 centimes (50 cents), which represents for him a premium of 6½ per cent.

With such advantages the importation of American flour should increase rapidly; it is what has already occurred, and what has happened, simply confirms the former premonitions. The amount of importations for the last three years which we have given above proves this statement. The American flour has supplanted our products in all the markets, and there only remains to us the national market, the only one which we have a right to defend. The French miller accepts the principles of free trade; it is in effect a most wholesome stimulant, but it is not, we think, making free trade to admit foreign manufactured products on better terms than the raw materials. It is for this reason that we have the honor to ask you not to allow the entrance of flour save on the same equality as wheat. The interest of the consumer, which we should have constantly in view in all matters touching the raising of the tariff, will not be brought into question here; it is insured by the duty on wheat of 60 centimes (12 cents) on the 100 kilograms, which is a simple duty of balance, and on which the miller on his part can have nothing to object to. If we would only remember that the French miller manufactures every year 2,500,000,000 francs' worth of flour, and that it is the only market for 100,000,000 hectolitres (275,100,000 bushels) of wheat, which represents the average amount of our harvest, we shall have an idea of the importance of the national interest that is threatened.

AMERICAN GRAIN IN BORDEAUX.

REPORT BY CONSUL GERRISH.

I have the honor to inclose herewith a report concerning the importation of American grain at the port of Bordeaux during the year 1880.

B. GERRISH, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Bordeaux, March 14, 1881.

[Inclosure.]

Importation of grain from America at the port of Bordeaux during the year 1880.

Again, as in my report of last year, I would call attention to the insignificant number of American vessels employed in carrying our productions to foreign markets, only 7 in 235 to this port. The amount paid for freight was upwards of $2,000,000, a sum by far in excess, doubtless, of the profits on the grain, and nearly all this paid to foreign ship-owners.

It is greatly to be regretted that some measures cannot be provided whereby citizens of the United States may realize more largely than they now do in the transportation of their own products. The amount of grain discharged here, although large, was but a small proportion of the total received in France. But in all other ports, as in Bordeaux, it has been delivered principally from foreign vessels. It has been estimated that about 65,000,000 bushels have been landed in French ports during the last year. The variation in the price paid for freight to other French ports is but little from that to Bordeaux. It can then safely be stated that upwards of $20,000,000 have been paid to foreign ship-owners the last year for the transportation of *one article* only of our own products to a French market.

These figures can well be taken into consideration by all those interested in the development of the carrying trade of the United States.

In examining recently the earliest records of this consulate that have been preserved, I found that in the year 1795 there entered at this port 349 American vessels from American ports, laden chiefly with American products. To be sure most of these vessels were small, but the large number indicates the lively interest that was then manifested in our mercantile marine, and is in striking contrast with the meager exhibit at present.

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WINE CROP OF FRANCE, 1880.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL GERRISH, OF BORDEAUX.

THE WINE CROP IN FRANCE OF 1880.

The total quantity of the wine crop in the different wine-producing departments of France, during the year 1880, amounted to 652,904,384 gallons. This is an increase compared with the crop of 1879 of nearly 88,000,000 gallons, but 184,000,000 gallons less than the average crops for the ten years previous to 1879.

The annual production of wine has varied enormously, and a glance at the difference is not devoid of interest. The crop of 1808 was 739,500,000 gallons; in 1850, 1,188,450,000 gallons. Then the production fell off rapidly until 1854, when the product was only 289,800,000 gallons. The decrease was caused by oidium on the vines, which threatened to entirely destroy them, until the sulphur cure was discovered and applied, after which the production of wine rapidly increased again, and, in 1857, a normal production of 910,000,000 gallons was again obtained. In 1858 the crop was a most extraordinary one, amounting to 1,400,000,000 gallons, followed in 1859 by the recording of 780,000,000 gallons.

From the years 1864 to 1877 the average annual product was 1,505,000,000 gallons. The crop of 1865 was the most remarkable one, reaching the unprecedented amount of *two billion one hundred and ninety million gallons.*

The unusual severity of the winter of 1879–'80, the abundant rains in spring, the ravages occasioned by hail storms in many departments, led to fear that the results of the wine-crop for 1880 would even be less favorable.

In the districts lightly afflicted by phylloxera the production has relatively been good. In the departments Aude, Haute-Garrone, Pyrénées-Orientàles, Haute-Savoie, Tarnet-Garonne, and Tarn, the crop has not only exceeded the vintage of 1879, but has surpassed the average crop of the ten years previous.

Although in the neighboring departments, Charentes, Hérault, and Lotet-Garonne, the crop of 1880 is slightly superior to that of 1879; these departments continue to be seriously put to trial by the phylloxera. It is the same in the departments Ardèche, Dordogne, Saône-et-Loire, Rhône, and Var. In these last-named regions, last year's production is much less than the average of the former ten years.

Besides the vineyards already ravaged by the phylloxera, there was a further destruction last year, by the same disease, to a large number of vines, calculated at 92,000,000 acres.

To cover the deficit of the crops of the last two years, a much larger quantity of wine has been imported from other European countries. The amount of importations, which previous to 1878 scarcely reached 32,000,000 gallons, increased to 66,000,000 gallons in 1879, and to 142,252,000 gallons during the first eleven months of 1880.

Spain has supplied the largest part of these importations. The exact amount of its exportation into France, which in 1878 was 29,656,000 gallons and increased in 1879 to 50,380,000 gallons, exceeded 88,000,000 gallons in the first eleven months of 1880.

The arrivals from Italy increased from 4,290,000 gallons in 1878 to 11,880,000 in 1879, and to 33,000,000 gallons in the first eleven months of 1880.

The following statement shows the quantity of wine produced in the department of the Gironde, generally known as Médoc or Bordeaux wines, for the past ten years:

	Gallons.
1871	56, 737, 538
1872	61, 574, 810
1873	72, 592, 740
1874	112, 720, 146
1875	116, 147, 020
1876	43, 142, 990
1877	77, 244, 068
1878	48, 622, 508
1879	34, 485, 132
1880	36, 525, 170

Of these years, the wines considered good in quality are those of 1874, 1875, and 1878; those considered fair in quality, the years 1871, 1873, and 1877; the bad year, that is, very inferior in quality, the year 1872.

Not any of the above years are considered equal in quality to those of 1802, 1811, 1815, 1834, 1844, 1847, 1848, 1858, 1864, and 1865, which are considered the superior qualities of the present century. It must, however, be stated that the opinions on the wines of 1865 are not unanimous, as very many of the first crûs did not turn out as well as others.

B. GERRISH,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Bordeaux, January 15, 1881.

OURSELVES AS SEEN BY OTHERS—TRADE OF VIRGINIA WITH FRANCE.

REPORT BY CONSUL PEIXOTTO, OF LYONS.

Deeming it of more than ordinary interest, on the principle that it is good "to see ourselves as others see us," I beg to inclose a translation which I have made from the French into English of a report of the Consul of France at Richmond to his government, and which I have found in the *Bulletin Consulaire Francais*, and which may not yet have met the notice of the Department.

BEN. F. PEIXOTTO,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Lyons, January 27, 1881.

[Translation.]

DIRECT RELATIONS OF THE PORT OF RICHMOND, VA., WITH FRANCE, DURING THE FIRST NINE MONTHS OF 1880.

MONSIEUR LE MINISTER DES AFFAIRES ÉTRANGÉRES: I have already had the honor to signal to the department the development of direct relations between the port of Richmond with France, and to indicate the causes.

The gradual development of this commercial movement, though small when compared with that of the great centers of the Union, is, however, not without interest,

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especially with regard to prevision and economical advantages for ships, previously mentioned, and which appear to be maintained. I therefore believe it better to anticipate the usual time for my annual report, and to make known the new information which I have been able to collect.

The direct exports destined for Havre, Bordeaux, Bayonne, Dunkirk, and Marseilles during the past nine months of 1880 are represented by eighteen vessels, with an average tonnage of 600 tons each, and draught of 14 to 16 feet (English). The total number for 1879 was twenty-five vessels, and this number will not be less for the present year. Before 1878 it was nothing.

Character of the merchandise exported.

	Value.
Wheat, 20,000 hectoliters	$53,230
Petroleum, 1,099,905 gallons	91,881
Indian corn, 94,000 hectoliters	139,227
Tobacco, 300,000 kilograms	32,544
Coal (samples for trial)	40
Magnesia (samples for trial)	450
Iron ore (samples for trial)	1,605
Powdered bark (for dying)	200
4,764 staves	500
Sacks of local manufactures	1,324
Total	321,001

These figures are not very large, but if it is considered that in the past, both before and since the war of secession, there was no export for France or for other countries, this new state of things seems worthy of remark. The rapid development of certain ports in the United States, that of Baltimore for example, is owing to railway combinations having for their object the largest possible transportation of western products to the seaboard. Since a certain time, and while works were in progress for the canalization of the James River, combinations of the same kind have been made here, and at this moment the commercial future of Richmond promises very considerable extension.

Companies have been formed for the construction of grain elevators and cotton presses in view of the growing receipts by new lines of railway communication, destined for exportation by river and sea.

France has a good past on this movement, and will no doubt profit still more advantageously by this new prosperity. The cultivation of the vine commences to take notable proportions in Virginia, where the soil and climate are extremely favorable for this culture, and considering that actual import of American wines into France for 1879 was 3,000,000 of gallons, hopes are entertained of deriving also from this source a new element for commerce.

* * * * * * *

G. DE SIBOURG,
Vice-Consul of France at Richmond, Va.

SILK INDUSTRY OF FRANCE, 1880.

REPORT BY CONSUL PEIXOTTO, OF LYONS.

I have the honor to present, herewith, a report on the silk market of Lyons for the calendar year 1880, ended December 31.

The condition des soies (silk weighing and conditioning house) of Lyons has tested during the year just closed 4,731,649 kilos of silk. For the five previous years to January 1, 1881, the amount of silk conditioned at Lyons, was as follows:

	Kilos.
1876	5,820,872
1877	3,999,761
1878	4,333,006
1879	4,544,320
1880	4,731,649

The proportion between the quantities of raw and worked silks tested in 1880 compared with 1879 was about the same. Foreign raw and

worked silks have formed 84 per cent. of the entries, leaving but 16 per cent. of French production as having passed the condition house.

From this statement it will be seen how largely manufacturers are now dependent upon foreign supplies of the raw material, and how greatly French sericulture has declined. It will also be observed, if the foregoing figures may be taken for a criterion, that the manufacturers of Lyons, notwithstanding their reiterated complaints, have been as busily engaged during 1880 as in 1879, and that as a great silk center Lyons has lost little of its prestige.

The receipts and deliveries of silk and waste silk for the same quinquennial period, valued in francs, have been as follows:

	Francs.
1876	486,647,000
1877	188,479,000
1878	290,681,000
1879	287,973,000
1880 (first eleven months)	605,368,000

Having regard to the above statement, the following have been the exportations:

	Francs.
1876	163,324,000
1877	110,723,000
1878	116,268,000
1879	139,611,000
1880	144,427,000

In comparing these tables the first idea which presents itself is, that on the whole there has been but little variation in the entries and deliveries, except in 1876, which was an exceptional and extraordinary year, and if reference be had to previous years, going back for ten years, it would be discovered that the imports were much greater and the exports less. The lamentations of the French sericulturists for the past two years against the excessive importation of foreign silk would, therefore, seem to be but feebly warranted, particularly if the unfavorable climatic causes to which they have been subjected be taken into consideration.

Referring to the several tables with which I have the honor to accompany this report, I beg particularly to call attention to Table No. 1, giving the comparative prices of silk in this market for the last fifteen years, and in this connection to draw a parallel between the prices current during 1879 and 1880.

Silks.	1879.	1880.
ORGANZINES.	*Francs.*	*Francs.*
France (filature and worked), first order, 22–28 ..... per kilogram	80.85	69.71
Piedmont ..... do	76.80	68.70
Italy, second order, 22–28 ..... do	72.74	62.64
TRAMS.		
Italy, second order, 26–28 ..... per kilogram	70.72	60.62
China (French-worked), 40–45 ..... do	54.56	51.53
GREGES.		
Italy, second order ..... per kilogram	66.68	56.58
Issattee, 4th market ..... do	45.47	41.43
Haking, Nos. 2 and 3 ..... do	40.42	34.37
Bengal, first order, 10–16 ..... do	50.51	46.47
Grappes, No. 1, 10–16 ..... do	56.58	49.50
Canton Issattees, No. 4 ..... do	35.36	33.34

From this comparison it will easily be seen that 1880 has been a happy silk year. When the best French silk sells for 69 francs the kilogram,

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and it was sold even lower, it would be supposed that the production of manufactured goods would take large proportions. The reverse has been the case, and as I have had occasion to observe in a previous report, those years when the prices of the raw material have been the highest have been the most prosperous for the consumption, and this has again been abundantly proved by the results of the departed year. These reflections lead me to submit the following:

REVIEW OF THE SILK TRADE FOR 1880.

During the first trimestre business thrived, owing to a successful spring season in the United States, which have become the principal outlet for silk exports. Manufacturers received imposing orders in figured goods and satins, which took the place of plain silks, black and colored. In spite of the variety of mixed stuffs, pure silk goods made an important part of the consumption, and at one time it was thought that fashion was again turning in favor of the latter. It is unquestionable that at this moment manufacturers worked actively and with a fair profit; that looms wanted could not be obtained, and that the statistics (as I reported at the time) of silk dyed showed an increase of about 25 per cent.

The result was a large and regular consumption of the raw material, free from all speculation. European silk, better suited to pending requirements, and favorably influenced by the disastrous crop of 1879, experienced a rise from 4 to 5 francs the kilogram. China silk, more abundant, remained without change.

In April and the beginning of May important orders for silk goods were again placed with manufacturers, but fashion ran upon figured styles, mixtures of silk and cotton. Manufacturers of this class of goods were worked to their full capacity, but at the same time the preponderance of cotton was such that it checked the consumption of silk, while the near approach of the crop pushed holders to sell, and caused the first downward movement in prices.

At the end of May the very satisfactory reports of the rearing of worms in Europe and cablegrams from Shanghai setting down the season's production at 15 per cent. more than the year before combined to spread a panic in the market very soon after the progress of the Italian crop dispersed all doubts as to a good outcome, and by the end of June prices had dropped more than 15 per cent.

Tempted by low rates, reelers bought cocoons freely and throwsters placed important orders with China, but manufacturers, confident in abundant supplies, held back. For two months business languished. Notwithstanding their extremely low level, prices could not hold their own, and European silk went down 3 to 4 francs, Asiatic silk 1 to 2 francs in value.

September it was thought would bring a reaction, dependent upon the opening of the autumn season and upon expected orders for the spring; but such was not the case. Instead of being turned over quietly, fancy goods and novelties accumulated in London and New York, and, moreover, the Presidential election in the United States created a fresh difficulty in the way of sales. Manufacturers had no other alternative but to reduce their production, and prices continued to weaken.

After about seven months of prostration, the November market reached the lowest point. Stocks of silk goods showed heavy losses, and fashion, deserting fancy goods, favored no other article. Speculation, attracted by the low scale of prices, then came in, and some orders placed

in silk goods sufficient to arouse business caused a rise of from 2 to 3 francs.

At the beginning of December the market became quieter, but the year closed with decidedly brighter prospects.

Without speaking of the restricted import of Japanese cards, the doubts about their quality and the unfavorable influence exceptionally mild winters have on silk-worms' eggs in general, the statistics of the Lyons condition house, in spite of an adverse trade, point to an increasing consumption.

In Italy producers who have lightened their stocks are holding for better prices, and in China supplies are drawing to an end sooner than expected.

As I close this report I learn that the market continues to improve, prices ruling from 2 to 4 francs higher, and generally better spirit prevailing.

I beg to supplement this report with a table, marked No. 2, showing the deliveries through the condition house of Lyons for the last ten years. Also table, marked No. 3, showing French imports and exports of silk goods and silk for 1874, '75, '76, '77, '78, '79, and for the last six months of 1880. Also a table, marked No. 4, showing arrivals and stocks of cocoons at Marseilles (the virtual silk port of Lyons) for 1875 to 1880.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

BEN. F. PEIXOTTO,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Lyons, January 10, 1881.

TABLE No. 1.—*Comparative prices of silk on the* 31*st of December for the last fifteen years.*

Silks.	1866.	1867.	1868.	1869.	1870.
ORGANZINES.	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*
France, filature and work, first class, 22–28, per kilogram	123. 128	132. 135	150. 152	133. 135	99. 105
Piedmont, filature and work, first class, per kilogram	118. 123	122. 130	145. 151	123. 128	96. 106
Italy, second class, 22–28 ..... per kilogram	111. 114	118. 122	126, 132	100. 110	83. 96
TRAMS.					
Italy, second class, 26–28 ..... per kilogram	99. 106	97. 105	106. 114	98. 118	85. 95
China, French work, 40–45 ..... do	106. 110	92. 96	84. 93	88. 96	80. 90
RAWS.					
Italy, second class ..... per kilogram	92. 101	92. 102	100. 118	80. 110	74. 88
Tsatlee, No. 4 ..... do	82. 84	70. 73	66. 68	70. 72	71. 73
Kahing, Nos. 2 and 3 ..... do	76. 82	64. 69	60. 65	62. 67	57. 65
Bengal, first class, 10–16 ..... do	90. 92	74. 80	74. 84	75. 82	60. 70
Mybash, No. 1, 10–16 ..... do	104. 106	99. 104	100. 106	88. 98	72. 75
Canton-Tsatlee, No. 4 ..... do	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

TABLE No. 1.—*Comparative prices of silk, &c.*—Continued.

Silks.	1871.	1872.	1873.	1874.	1875.
ORGANZINES.	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*
France, filature and work, first class, 22-28, per kilogram	120. 124	124. 126	108. 112	94. 98	83. 90
Piedmont, filature and work, first class, per kilogram	116. 122	116. 124	102. 106	93. 97	81. 85
Italy, second class, 22-28.....per kilogram..	98. 105	109. 112	90. 96	72. 75	70. 72
TRAMS.					
Italy, second class, 26-28 .....per kilogram..	96. 104	98. 106	86. 94	63. 73	64. 68
China, French work, 40-45 .....do....	92. 100	85. 94	68. 75	55. 60	55. 60
RAWS.					
Italy, second class.....per kilogram..	85. 105	92. 106	80. 90	60. 70	56. 60
Tsatlee, No. 4 .....do....	72. 74	69. 71	52. 54	42. 43	42. 43
Kahing, Nos. 2 and 3 .....do....	62. 72	60. 66	44. 48	34. 37	36. 40
Bengal, first class, 10-16 .....do.. ..	60. 70	64. 73	57. 62	40. 42	30. 36
Mybash, No. 1, 10-16.....do....	75. 78	76. 79	70. 74	53. 55	44. 45
Canton-Tsatlee, No. 4 .....do....	49. 52	50. 52	38. 39	31. 32	30. 31

Silks.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.
ORGANZINES.	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*
France, filature and work, first class, 22-28, per kilogram	115. 125	90. 92	78. 80	80. 85	69. 71
Piedmont, filature and work, first class, per kilogram	113. 118	84. 88	74. 75	76. 80	68. 70
Italy, second class, 22-28.....per kilogram..	102. 110	80. 83	66. 67	72. 74	62. 64
TRAMS.					
Italy, second class, 26-28.....per kilogram..	100. 108	78. 80	62. 64	70. 72	60. 62
China, French work, 40-45 .....do....	76. 83	65. 68	55. 58	54. 56	51. 53
RAWS.					
Italy, second class.....per kilogram..	100. 105	74. 78	56. 58	66. 68	56. 58
Tsatlee, No. 4 .....do....	71. 73	52. 53	42. 44	45. 47	41. 42
Kahing, Nos. 2 and 3 .....do....	57. 62	44. 49	39. 41	40. 42	34. 37
Bengal, first class, 10-16.....do....	73. 78	52. 56	37. 40	50. 51	46. 47
Mybash, No. 1, 10-16 .....do....	88. 91	59. 60	48. 49	56. 58	49. 50
Canton-Tsatlee, No. 4 .....do....	43. 44	35. 37	30. 31	35. 36	33. 34

TABLE No. 2.—*Deliveries through the conditioning house of Lyons for the last ten years.*

Years.	Bales.	Kilograms.	Years.	Bales.	Kilograms.
1871	39, 624	2, 880, 400	1876	81, 502	5, 675, 200
1872	45, 595	3, 184, 600	1877	50, 024	3, 323, 200
1873	45, 097	3, 081, 700	1878	62, 123	4, 252, 700
1874	57, 261	3, 895, 900	1879	64, 024	4, 421, 400
1875	65, 855	4, 477, 100	1880	67, 889	4, 652, 535

TABLE No. 3.—*French imports and exports of silk goods and silk.*

[Value in millions of francs.]

Years.	Imports.		Exports.	
	Silk and cocoons.	Silk goods.	Silk and cocoons.	Silk goods.
1874	322.3	32.8	96.4	416.9
1875	330.1	37.2	133.0	375.7
1876	543.8	37.9	172.3	295.7
1877	226.5	32.5	120.2	259.2
1878	377.3	41.8	142.3	288.7
1879	307.5	37.3	149.2	237.3
1880 (11 months)	305.3	38.1	144.4	220.5

TABLE No. 4.—*Arrivals and stocks of cocoons at Marseilles.*

Years.	Arrivals.	Stocks, December 31.
	Kilograms.	*Kilograms.*
1875	904,000	465,000
1876	1,002,500	358,400
1877	612,500	285,000
1878	684,000	511,000
1879	1,123,000	586,000
1880	926,000	772,700

BENJ. F. PEIXOTTO, *Consul.*

LYONS, FRANCE, *January* 10, 1881.

SILK INDUSTRY OF ITALY COMPARED.

REPORT BY CONSUL PEIXOTTO, OF LYONS.

The silk production of Italy is the largest of all the silk-growing countries of Europe. Italy has notwithstanding suffered like other countries from the *maladie des vers* (diseases of the silk worm), and her production has been considerably diminished in consequence. This production, including that of the Italian Tyrol, has, since 1865, varied in the following manner:

	Kilograms.		Kilograms.
1865	1,762,000	1873	2,960,000
1866	1,800,000	1874	3,430,000
1867	2,000,000	1875	3,073,000
1868	1,900,000	1876	1,010,000
1869	2,180,000	1877	1,853,000
1870	3,180,000	1878	2,500,000
1871	3,473,000	1879	1,200,000
1872	3,125,000		

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The comparative production of raw silk for the two years of 1872, 1879, of the different silk-raising countries has been, according to data furnished by the commerce of Lyons, as follows:

Countries.	1872.	1879.
	Kilograms.	*Kilograms.*
France	636, 800	255, 000
Italy	3, 125, 000	1, 276, 000
Spain	171, 000	40, 000
Turkey (in Europe)	110, 700	136, 000
Syria	107, 500	171, 000
China (export)	3, 385, 000	4, 105, 000
Japan	721, 000	1, 000, 000
India	574, 000	240, 000

As will be observed from the foregoing, the production of China alone exceeds that of Italy, and it may be added that Italian silk is considered the best which appears upon the European markets.

The Italian silk operatives of both sexes are so dexterous and handle the raw material with such consummate ability, and at such insignificant compensation, that nothing but the invention of special machinery can oppose their successful competition.

The wages of silk workers in Italy are about 40 per cent. less than the highest paid in France. China and Japan, however, by reason of more favorable climates, cheapness of lands, and the still more insignificant prices paid for labor, can produce silk at a still cheaper price than Italy.

In 1879 the cost of production of one kilogram of cocoons in Japan was increased from 1.50 to 2.75 francs. The expenses attending the transportation of 100 kilograms from Japan to Venice, Marseilles, or London, are about $9; and to Milan, Turin, and Lyons, $9.60.

Independently of the silk-worm diseases, the fine raw silks of Italy incur an increasing danger from the growing tendency of the French markets to supply themselves directly from the Orient.

The raising of silk-worms is of the greater importance in Italy. In 1877 this industry existed in 5,300 communities; in 4,409 of which the harvest was feeble; in 619 it was only an average; in 192 it was good; and in 82 it was superior.

The mulberry plantations cover hundreds of thousands of hectares of land, while in France scarcely more, if quite, 50,000 hectares are thus devoted.

There are 111,377 persons occupied in Italy in silk raising, the larger part of whom live in the northern provinces and are divided thus:

	Per cent.
Piedmont, 21,801 persons	19.6
Lombardy, 55,305 persons	49.7
Venetia, 15,515 persons	13.9

In France silk reeling is confined to 4,229 men, 43,495 women, and 9,978 children, distributed in 1,440 factories. The number of basins amount to 83,036, of which those heated by steam are 46,875 in activity, and 6,495 are idle, and those heated by *feu nu* (a small furnace underneath) 29,666, of which 18,104 are in activity and 11,562 unemployed.

The majority of Italian basins are also concentrated in Lombardy, Piedmont, and Venetia. In the two first-named provinces the steam-basins predominate, while in Venetia those by *feu nu* (small furnaces)

are preferred. In short, silk reeling occupies in the provinces specially devoted to this work, 74,382 persons, who may be classified as follows:

Provinces.	Men.	Women.	Children.	Total.
Piedmont	1,270	7,183	2,414	10,867
Lombardy	4,016	21,814	33,057	58,881
Venetia	172	1,865	445	2,482
Other provinces	185	1,502	435	2,122
Aggregate	5,643	32,364	36,345	74,352

The number of spindles employed amount in total to 2,083,168, divided among each 1,000 persons about as follows:

Lombardy	452
Venetia	119
Piedmont	117
Liguria	14

If a comparison be made of this number of spindles with those of other silk-producing countries of Europe, it will be seen that Italy holds the foremost rank. France had in 1875 241,314 spindles, Austria 90,000 spindles, and Germany 89,796 spindles.

The production of about 2,000,000 kilograms of raw silk is not adequate to the capacity of Italian spindles, and Italy imports in consequence nearly 200,000 kilograms of European and 800,000 kilograms of Asiatic silk.

The spindles for waste silk are not counted in the foregoing figures. Compared to the ordinary spindles their number is very limited, being not more than 24,104, the larger number being situated in the vicinity of Navarre. France, in 1872, possessed 90,000; to-day there are not more than 60,000 spindles thus occupied. Switzerland has 150,000, England 100,000, and Austria 25,000.

Silk reeling, as will thus be remarked, is very largely developed in Italy; on the contrary, weaving has become inconsiderable. There are but 665 power-looms and 7,394 hand-looms; a total of 8,059 looms in all.

It is true 13,000 looms are reported as existing, but the first figure is believed to be the true one. Of these 8,059 looms there are 6,549 in Lombardy, Como being the center of this manufacture, 825 in Piedmont, and 271 in Campinie. The number of operatives occupied in silk weaving is 14,664; of whom 5,210 are men, 6,899 women, and 2,555 children. Lombardy alone occupies 12,570.

Silk weaving in Italy is far behind France and Germany. France had, in 1876, 10,470 power-looms and 90,963 hand-looms, or a total of 101,433 looms. Germany, in 1875, possessed 55,922 silk-weaving and 212 silk-knitting looms, occupying 63,992 persons. In Switzerland, in 1872, in the canton of Zurich, there were about 40,000 hand-looms and 1,000 power-looms; to-day in the same canton there are not less than 5,000 power-looms employed, including those occupied in producing mixtures of cotton and wool with silk.

The imports and exports of Italy during the past ten years indicate the progressive development of the silk industry in that country.

During the French-German war of 1870–'71 the *exports* of silk fabrics were naturally greatly augmented, exceeding by far the usual quantity, and yet the *imports* of the same article instead of diminishing were increased, proving that even with exceptionably favorable circumstances the Italian silk manufactures were incapable of entirely annihilating

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foreign competition. It is alleged that this was owing to lack of capital, but this in fact was only true to a certain degree. English capital was in fact, and is, to a large extent, at the disposition of Italian manufacturers, but having fear of French competition for stuffs has favored the Italian (raw) silk culture in preference (*i. e.*, the raising of silk-worms and the industry of reeling), believing and with justice that these have a greater and more solid future.

The first nine months of 1879 were confirmatory in this respect in point of the importations of 1,131,500 kilograms of raw silk, representing a value of 80,000,000 francs, while the exportations for the same period showed 2,269,600 kilograms, or in value 300,000,000 francs.

The silk goods imported represent a production of about 6,000 hand-looms, and were, for the most part, from Lyons.

From the large export of raw silks it is quite evident that the silk industry, in so far as the raising of silk-worms and in the reeling of silk are concerned, is susceptible of still greater development in Italy. In fact, the Italian Government as well as private enterprise are making constant efforts in this direction, especially with reference to the poorer populations of Southern Italy, realizing, as many of our best statesmen at home do with respect to our own peculiar Southern population, the inappreciable utility of such efforts.

Upon the latter topic, and with special reference to the silk industry, I shall have the honor to submit further remarks in a future dispatch.

BENJAMIN F. PEIXOTTO,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Lyons, France, February 9, 1881.

STATISTICS OF SILK, 1880.

REPORT BY CONSUL PEIXOTTO, OF LYONS.

I have the honor to submit the following report on the silk manufactures of Lyons for 1880, and to accompany the same by a table showing in detail this important industry of my consular district.

I have been indebted to the *Chambre Syndicate*, which annually prepares these approximate statistics, for the details of the inclosed statement, and I take leave to bear testimony, considering the innumerable and multiple tissues enumerated, and how scattered are the tens of thousands of ateliers, to the care and labor bestowed in gathering these important figures, which no less in their detail than in their *ensemble* exhibit the importance of this great industry, and cannot fail to interest our manufacturers of like fabrics.

It will be seen from these statistics that the total production of all kinds of silk goods and mixtures of silk, cotton, wool, linen, of gold and silver threads, &c., was, for the year 1880, 356,500,000 francs, while for 1879 the amount was 345,350,000 francs. The production has thus far the past year been slightly in advance of the precedent.

In quantity (weight) of stuffs, and especially in mitrage, the difference in favor of 1880 has been much more important. On one side the value of silk goods has been about 5 per cent. lower in 1880 than in 1879, and on the other, goods of lower prices, mixtures of cotton and wool in the total production for a much greater amount, representing for the year 170,400,000 francs, upon 356,500,000 francs, or very near 50 per cent.

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In this valuation of 170,400,000 francs, cotton-back satins, dyed in the piece or in flottes, amounted to 108,000,000 francs, or 30 per cent. of the total production. Cotton-back satins and tissues of similar character, such as *satin marveilleux*, have for the past year been more largely favored than any other class of goods. They have largely replaced *failles* and *taffetas* of pure silk, the production of which latter articles has fallen from 165,000,000 francs in 1878 and 90,000.000 francs in 1879 to only 60,000,000 francs in 1880. In striking contrast the production of silk and cotton mixtures was but 37,000,000 francs in 1878, rose to 80,000,000 francs in 1879, and, as before stated, was for 1880 about 108,000,000 francs.

A comparison of the figures above given and more definitely set forth in the table inclosed, will show how remarkable has been the transformation in the Lyons silk manufacture. It is in fact more than a transformation, it is a revolution, in which cotton and wool have entered as formidable rivals with their more costly sister, silk.

The specially favored goods, after satin, have been armures surah of pure silk, or mixtures of silk and cotton. The production of this description of stuffs has risen from 2,000,000 francs in 1879 to 13,000,000 francs in 1880; plushes from 3,500,000 francs to 7,000,000 francs, and figured goods (*façonnés*), silk and cotton mixtures, from 5,000,000 to 10,000,000 francs.

The largely increased production of mixed goods which has marked the year 1880 has been accompanied by instability in fashion. Rarely has the capricious goddess been more changeable and tyrannic.

Strong in the hereditary aptitudes which four centuries have conferred upon her artisans, Lyons again has proved to the world how fecund is her skill, how fertile her genius, how inexhaustible her power of production, and how incontestably valuable have been her schools of design and invention, graduating annually more and more capable, intelligent, and skillful workers, to meet the endless and cormorant demands of fashion, though ranging and changing from one tissue to another, or calling for all but impossible combinations. It is to these abundant resources, this marvelous facility to produce, to recover from losses by new creations, and, before rivals can fairly imitate, supplant the loss by fresh novelties, that Lyons owes her position as the foremost city, the sovereign mistress of the silk-art throughout the world.

BENJ. F. PEIXOTTO,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Lyons, France, February 16, 1881.

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Value of silk production of Lyons in 1879 and 1880.

PLAIN SILK OR WASTE SILK GOODS.

Silks.	1879.	1880.
	Francs.	*Francs.*
Black failles and taffetas, supple and coiled	65, 000, 000	45, 000, 000
Colored failles and taffetas	25, 000, 000	15, 000, 000
All silk black and colored satins	5, 000, 000	5, 000, 000
Striped velvets, black and colored, satin, armure double faced	.....	1, 000, 000
All silk black and colored velvets	9, 000, 000	9, 000, 000
Parasols and umbrella taffetas and serges	10, 000, 000	10, 000, 000
Linings, serges, armures, marcelines, florences, black and colored lustrines	5, 000, 000	8, 000, 000
Unbleached, printed, and dyed foulards	25, 000, 000	20, 000, 000
Striped or checked taffetas, supple or coiled	50, 000	100, 000
Moires antiques and francaises, black and colored	600, 000	400, 000
Striped pekins, satins of all kinds	1, 500 000	500, 000
Pure silk stuffs for furniture and church ornaments	1, 200, 000	1, 200, 000
Black and colored armures for dresses, surah, &c	2, 000, 000	10, 000, 000
Total	149, 350, 000	125, 200, 000

PURE SILK FIGURED AND BROCHÉ GOODS.

Figured goods, lisérés, damas, armures, druggets, black and colored	**30, 000, 000**	**20, 000, 000**
Silk stuffs for furniture and church ornaments, damas, lampas, &c	**2, 500, 000**	**3, 000, 000**
Satins and figured moire antique, grands façonnés, velvets, figured or striped, divers tissues, moire antique, taffetas, gros de Tours, figured	**4, 500, 000**	**2, 600, 000**
Total	**37, 000, 000**	**25, 600, 000**

SILK GOODS MIXED WITH COTTON, WOOL, ETC.

Black and colored satins, cotton warp	56, 000, 000	80, 000, 000
Satins, cotton warp, dyed in the piece, for hatters, modes, and East India	24, 000, 000	28, 000, 000
Velvets, black and colored cotton warp	6, 500, 000	5, 000, 000
Black and colored velvets, double faced	4, 000, 000	3, 000, 000
Figured velvets, striped, checked, novelties, cotton warp	2, 000, 000	4, 000, 000
Plushes for millinery and hatters	3, 500, 000	7, 000, 000
Poplins, sicilienues, bengalines, and armures, divers stuffs, silk woof, cotton warp	2, 200, 000	1, 200, 000
Figured goods, warp or woof in cotton or wool, for dresses	5, 000, 000	10, 000, 000
Plain and figured stuffs for carriages	400, 000	400, 000
Plain and figured stuffs, brocatelles, &c., for furniture and church ornaments	2, 000, 000	2, 000, 000
Printed satins	.....	300, 000
Turquoises, failles, serges, armures, polonaises, linings, cotton warp, and other articles for millinery	3, 000, 000	9, 500, 000
Foulard mossul, woof and cotton	1, 500, 000	3, 000, 000
Armures surah, &c., dyed	.....	2, 000, 000
Silk or waste silk tissues, wool, cotton, thread	4, 000, 000	4, 000, 000
Cravats, shawls, neckerchiefs	1, 000, 000	1, 000, 000
Figured cravats, cotton warp	200, 000	1, 000, 000
Umbrella tissues, cotton warp	7, 000, 000	7, 000, 000
Pekins, striped satins, cotton warp	1, 800, 000	1, 000, 000
Plain and figured goods, pure and mixed with cotton, wool, or gold and silver threads	4, 600, 000	6, 100, 000
	128, 700, 000	176, 500, 000

SUNDRY TISSUES.

Black and colored crapes	**10, 000, 000**	**10, 000, 000**
Crêpes de Chine	**2, 000, 000**	**1, 200, 000**
Gauzes	**2, 000, 000**	**2, 000, 000**
Grenadines	**5, 000, 000**	**5, 000, 000**
Plain tulles	**3, 000, 000**	**3, 000, 000**
Figured tulles	**600, 000**	**800, 000**
Embroidered tulles	**600, 000**	**500, 000**
Laces, trimmings, lamas	**1, 200, 000**	**1, 700, 000**
Total	**24, 400, 000**	**24, 200, 000**
Church ornaments and military trimmings	**6, 000, 000**	**5, 000, 000**
Aggregate	**345, 350, 000**	**356, 500, 000**

BEN. F. PEIXOTTO,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Lyons, February 16, 1881.

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MORTALITY AND EMIGRATION IN ROUEN, FRANCE.

REPORT BY CONSUL RHODES.

The births in the city of Rouen for the year 1880 were 2,865, and the deaths for the same period 4,023, showing an excess of deaths over births of 1,158. Indeed, in the numbers given, 498 were born in the hospital, and 1,331 died in the same place; that is to say, nearly one-third of the deaths were in the hospital, which is an indication of the poverty of the masses in this neighborhood, aggravated during the last year or two by the continued decline of the cotton industries.

There were 798 marriages.

The following is a table for the year 1879:

Deaths	3,878
Births	2,792
Marriages	808

From which a comparison may be made of the increased mortality.

Many of the workmen of the cotton factories—of which this population is largely composed—are either working on half time or are without employment, and this condition has had an important effect in reducing the number of births.

* * * * * * *

In view of the general discontent prevailing, the probabilities are that if well-directed agencies were established here, a considerable number of the workingmen might be induced to emigrate to the United States, where cotton industries are now developing.

ALBERT RHODES, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Rouen, January 7, 1881.

COTTON-SEED OIL IN FRANCE.

REPORT BY CONSUL GOULD, OF MARSEILLES.

The imports of cotton-seed oil are growing more and more extensive at the port of Marseilles, and while I am happy to state that the increase bears especially on American oil, I believe it may not be amiss to present herewith some remarks with reference to the trade itself, its progress, and the use to which the oil is adapted.

Until the year 1860 the importation of cotton-seed oil was very small and entirely provided by English crushing factories. The extent taken at Marseilles by the soap-manufacturing industry, and especially by the fabrication of white foaming soap, was the original cause of the increase in the cotton-seed oil consumption, although it was not accepted without some reluctance by soap manufacturers. Its cost, which was originally less than that of the ground-nut oil that it was to supersede, soon got to be the same, and it was found that the waste was by 2 or 3 per cent. heavier, so that the opening for cotton-seed oil as a material for the fabrication of soap is not very extensive, and it is chiefly used for an inferior quality of soap, known as "*savon blanc à froid*," the basis of which is cotton-seed oil mixed with other oils expressed from nuts, such

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as coprah, palm, and cocoa nuts. This grade of soap is not manufactured in Marseilles, but in the neighboring district, and especially at Avignon, and is, as already stated, much inferior in quality. But the cost is also less than that of the Marseilles pure soap, and thereby opens for the article a fair market in the western parts of France.

The cotton-seed oil used in soap factories chiefly comes from England, and more particularly from the crushing works at Hull.

As may be seen from the above statements, although the first attention of importers was called to the cotton-seed oil by the requirements of soap manufacturers, the trade would have remained indifferent but for the remarkable perfection obtained in the preparation of cotton-seed oil in the United States. It may be asserted that the first shipments of American oil were received in this port six years ago. At that time it received little favor on account of some faults in the oil itself, and particularly in its packing, which gave great cause of complaint. American producers soon overcame this difficulty by their successive and successful efforts toward the improvement of their oil, so much so that American cotton-seed oil may now be considered as one of the most important staples of the Marseilles trade.

The fact cannot be concealed that the great favor granted to American seed oils, when properly purified, arises from the fact that they are entirely tasteless, and can be mixed with other eatable oils without offering any chance of detection other than that they congeal at a higher temperature than the pure olive oil. This inconvenience has been remedied in a measure, and samples of American oil have been received that, owing to certain processes, keep their purity and fluidity at a temperature as low as 5° below zero Centigrade.

This improvement is not likely to be taken into much account here, as the price of such oils is naturally higher than that of the simply purified oil, but it is expected to give an opening to American cotton-seed oil in the north, where the inconvenience above mentioned had heretofore proved an insuperable objection to its use.

As to the milder climates of this district, and especially of Italy, it has less consequence, the temperature being seldom sufficiently low to cause a detection of the mixture by the congealing of the cotton-seed oil being in advance of that of the oil with which it may be mixed.

In fact, this process of mixing cotton-seed oil with olive oil has become so universal in Italy that there is now a question pending before the Italian Parliament to lay on American cotton-seed oil so heavy a tax that it would amount to prohibition of the article. The question is not yet solved, and the general impression is that it will be repelled, as it is proved that the cotton-seed oil is, in many instances, consumed in its pure state by the poorer classes of the people, and that it is, besides, entirely harmless.

The official statements show that most of the cotton-seed oil imported at Marseilles is re-exported in its natural state and under its own name, either by land or by sea, which would indicate that the practice of mixing cotton-seed oil with olive oil is not in great favor at this place. But this should not be taken as an evidence that the olive oil exported from this port is to be considered as the pure juice of the fruit; for all the so-called olive oil being first imported from Italy or the interior of France, it is not unjust to presume that the same oil that has been received here as pure olive oil may be exported in the state in which it has been received, but may also have been tampered with at the places of production, and be anything but the pure oil absolutely free from any adulteration. I must also add, in justice, that a large proportion of the

cotton-seed oil is used by a portion of the population in its pure state, and with the full knowledge of the consumer, who may, especially in the districts where the olive tree is not grown, prefer to make use of the article he knows to be cotton-seed oil, but pure, and which he can obtain at lower rates than the inferior article that may be sold to him at high prices as olive oil, and upon the genuineness of which he cannot rely.

At all events, the cotton-seed oil trade is, at Marseilles, in a state of progression that bids fair to increase and form a source of lively and profitable business for the American crushers.

The following figures will give an idea of the advance made by the trade in the years 1879 and 1880:

Years.	From the United States.		From England.		Total.	
	Barrels.	Kilograms.	Barrels.	Kilograms.	Barrels.	Kilograms.
1880	34, 622	5, 564, 377	18, 840	4, 276, 696	53, 462	9, 841, 073
1879	23, 205	3, 719, 335	11, 303	2, 981, 400	34, 508	6, 700, 735
Difference	11, 417	1, 845, 042	7, 537	1, 295, 296	18, 954	3, 149, 338

With relation to the foregoing statement, I must here call attention to the fact that the customs statistics in France only take account of the last port of shipment, and it may be assumed that a large proportion of the oil quoted as imported from England is American oil shipped from the United States to Marseilles via England, and transshipped in some English port.

J. B. GOULD,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Marseilles, February 12, 1881.

COTTON-SEED OIL IN ITALY.*

REPORT BY VICE-CONSUL-GENERAL HOOKER, OF ROME.

I have the honor to inform you that the Italian Chamber of Deputies have just approved a bill increasing the duty on cotton-seed oil, pure or mixed with other oils, from 6 to 20 lire per quintal. The same act also fixes a tax of 14 lire per quintal on cotton-seed oil made in Italy. The bill has been referred to the Senate for confirmation.

The Italian cabinet strongly supported this bill in the Chamber, and sought to show that it was necessary to raise the price at which cotton-seed oil may be obtained; claiming that the heavy adulteration of olive oil with cotton seed oil for table use is injuring the home production of olive oil and discrediting it on foreign markets.

The new duty will seriously affect our trade in cotton-seed oil with Italy; the fine quality being chiefly imported from the United States. I may say that the manufacture of cotton-seed oil in Italy is of little or no importance.

As showing the growing importance of the American trade in cotton-seed oil with Italy, I may add that according to Italian statistics

*See also under "Notes" report on same subject from Consul Crosby.

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140,000 quintals were imported from the United States and Canada during the five years, 1875 to 1879; during the year 1880 these imports ran up to 213,754 quintals.

J. C. HOOKER,
Vice-Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Rome, March 8, 1881.

POLITICAL ECONOMY AS TAUGHT BY THE ITALIAN MINISTRY.

REPORT BY CONSUL RICE, OF LEGHORN.

I feel it my duty to inform you that during the past four months the trade between this port and the United States has very considerably decreased, owing to the forthcoming legislation of the Italian Government in regard to its finances.

A most marvelous change has come over the rates of exchange, consequent upon the present ministry having announced its intention to introduce a bill to effect a loan to be devoted to the abolition of the forced paper currency.

This announcement has produced quite a panic, and the following decline in the price of bankers' sight bills on London, viz:

	Per cent. discount.
October 5	28.03
October 6	28.09
October 7	28.05
October 14	28.03
October 19	28.02
October 22	27.95
October 26	27.27
October 27	27.43
November 4	27.27
November 7	27.02
November 14	26.77
November 20	27.25
November 23	26.42
November 29	26.17
December 1	26.10
December 3	26.18
December 4	26.27
December 17	26.16
December 19	26.09
December 23	25.96
December 24	25.96
December 30	25.94

These figures are taken from the inward-freight book of the principal steamer agency here, and represent the rates the public paid their freight at on these dates, the figure bearing the price made in the Florence bourse the night previous, with the Bank of England rate added; thus, from October 22 to Christmas day, a fall of 2 per cent. is observable.

Specie is worth fully one-half to two-thirds per cent. less than London sight bills—nearly all commercial transactions with the United States passing through the hands of London bankers. This steady fall has had the effect of completely stopping business, particularly so with business of a speculative nature, as shippers could no longer send away their merchandise at the prices they had quoted in their prices current.

A great deal of agitation in a sense unfavorable to the ministerial

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propositions ensued, and the banks restricting discounts, the government itself was obliged to come to the assistance of the larger banking establishments, whose position had become most precarious, having an enormous authorized note circulation with little metallic reserve, as may be seen with the bourse quotations of the value of the shares of the national bank, which was, on September 30, 1880, 2,400 francs, and is now 2,225, the amount paid being 1,000 francs. For some time it was anticipated that on the opening of the Italian Chambers certain independent groups of deputies would have coalesced with the Right and dissident Left to overthrow the present ministry, but a vote being taken the ministry obtained a small majority, and it is now considered a sure thing that the bill will become a law.

It is fully anticipated that on the law taking effect much oscillation in exchanges will ensue, and some opine that 27 may be touched before the question is finally and forever settled.

In the natural order of things a fall in prices corresponding with the premium previously ruling should declare itself when quiet is once more established, as it is out of the question that the United States will pay 8 to 10 per cent. extra because Italy has given itself the luxury of a gold currency; otherwise it will bear heavily upon the commerce between the two nations.

WILLIAM T. RICE,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Leghorn, February 25, 1881.

ITALIAN MARBLE MINING.

REPORT BY CONSUL WELSH, OF CARRARA.

I am in receipt of Department circular of July 1, 1880, in reference to consular commercial reports, and while it would afford me great pleasure to comply with the request therein made for frequent communications calculated to advance the commercial and industrial interests of the United States, I am under the necessity of saying that a compliance with the request seems to me absolutely impossible.

Carrara is not a seaport town nor a commercial center; it is only a dirty little city up in the mountains, inhabited by people interested in the production of marble. Marble is the sole interest of the place. From 125,000 to 150,000 tons of it are sent out from Carrara to various parts of the world every year, but it is all sold for cash. The sale of the marble, the delivery of it at the railway station, or at Leghorn or Genoa, and the receipt of the cash equivalent, make up the entire commercial business of the place.

Carrara buys nothing directly from foreign countries. The little shops of the place are supplied in small amounts, from time to time, by the markets of Leghorn, Florence, and Genoa, to meet the demands of the retail trade.

There is no one in my district who is now, or who will ever be, while he lives here, a direct importer of American goods. If American goods were on sale in the larger cities of Italy, they would find their way here in minute quantities, but there is no likelihood of any direct importations hither from America.

It is barely possible that there may be an opening for American capital

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here in connection with the production of marble. At present marble is quarried in the rudest and most barbarous manner imaginable. No machinery of any kind is used in the work. The marble is located on the sides of exceedingly steep and rough mountains. The quarrying is accomplished by blowing off masses by means of an explosive agent. It will seem almost incredible, but I believe it to be a fact, that this method of quarrying does not give over one foot of good marble to every four feet quarried. Frequently the product of a blast consists of nothing better than small, irregular, almost worthless pieces of marble. An overdose of powder sometimes produces this result. But even if the right amount of powder is used and the dislocated portion of the mountain is all that could be wished for when it takes its first tumble from the cave, it may be badly broken up by rolling down the mountain side. Blocks from a blast sometimes roll half a mile down hill before they stop, grinding themselves smaller and smaller as they proceed, and crushing beneath their enormous weight everything that is in their path. I have in mind one quarry, so located, that when a blast is fired from it the blocks drop, at one bound, a distance of over 300 feet, upon a mass of *débris* from the same quarry and other quarries.

Carrara-marble producers say that the present method of quarrying is the only one adapted to the place. They say that machinery cannot be used here. "My!" said a gentleman to me, "there are places where the laborers cling to the mountain side by their eyebrows while they do their drilling and charging. What nonsense to talk of machinery for such places!"

It may be as the Carrara people say, but I do not believe it. I have too much faith in human ingenuity to believe it. I believe that if American capitalists should come to Carrara, they would very quickly prove to these Carrara medievalists that where there is a will to do a thing, men of energy and means can find the way.

Perhaps just at this time machinery would not pay here. The supply of marble is so plentiful, labor is so cheap, and the work of blowing chunks off the mountain side is so very inexpensive, that possibly costly machinery could not successfully enter into use. I am not, however, inclined to this view of the matter. Of course I speak without practical knowledge of machinery and mining, but I do not hesitate to say that I think the matter worthy of investigation by American capitalists.

ROBERT W. WELSH, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Carrara, Italy.

QUICKSILVER OF ALMADEN, SPAIN, AND NEW ALMADEN, CALIFORNIA.

REPORT BY MINISTER FAIRCHILD.

A short time since I had the pleasure of visiting the wonderful quicksilver mine at Almaden, Spain, in company with Mr. Randol, the manager of the New Almaden quicksilver mine, in California. We were shown every attention and afforded every possible facility for an extended examination of the mine and works. In honor of our visit, a most excellent breakfast was served in the lowest, the eleventh, level, nearly 1,000 feet below the surface.

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The mine is rich far beyond any other of like character in the world. I was informed that there is now enough of the richest of ore exposed and left as a reserve in the different levels to keep the works employed for the next one hundred years, and I can well believe the statement, for I saw a most bewildering quantity of such ore about ready, at any time it is needed, to be hoisted to the surface.

Thinking that the information may be of some interest to our people, I have obtained from an official source the following statistics of the monthly production of the mine during the year 1880:

	Pounds of quicksilver.
January	521283.35
February	511630.65
March	475779.05
April	455046.97
May	15966.72
October	19687.58
November	540304.52
December	583334.06
	3123032.90

LUCIUS FAIRCHILD,
Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.

LEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES,
Madrid, January 10, 1881.

ORIENTAL TRADE.

REPORT BY MINISTER KASSON ON THE BENEFITS OF TRADE MUSEUMS.

The interest awakened in the United States during the last few years in respect to foreign trade, and the necessity of finding further outlets for the increasing industries of America, will naturally attract attention to the methods adopted by foreign governments and people for the same object.

Austria has persistently struggled for many years to increase its commercial importance and its markets, in both European and Asiatic Turkey and recently in Persia. It has its line of subsidized steamers departing from Trieste and skirting the shores of the Eastern Mediterranean. It has also a line of subsidized steamers following the course of the Danube. In pursuance of the provisions of the treaty of Berlin, it is now endeavoring to force the completion of the projected system of railroad connections from its own lines to the incomplete lines leading from Salonica and Constantinople toward the Danubian principalities. When thus controlling alike water and land routes it not unreasonably looks to the future with confident expectations. In Persia, in addition to the consular and diplomatic force, there are several Austrian military officers engaged in organizing and disciplining the Persian army, which has led to large Persian orders for guns from the great Austrian factory at Steyr.

The Austrian consuls are specially educated, trained, and examined for the Oriental service. They must know eastern institutions and the languages and the treaties applicable to the countries for which they are destined. I reserve the system of instruction at the Oriental Academy of Vienna for a separate dispatch. I will only say here that the government does not proceed on the theory that a consul, like a poet, *nascitur non fit*. This is our American theory. Here they require of them several years of study, instruction, and fitting for the work of extending the influence and the commerce of their country.

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The Oriental Museum at Vienna, established by private means and under the control of an association is a useful auxiliary to the manufacturer and the merchant. Here they find samples of the cloths, leather, ornaments, porcelain and pottery, clothing, carpets, colors, embroideries, hangings, and generally of all articles produced or manufactured, which enter into the export trade of the east. Great pains have been taken to collect samples of the seeds, grains, barks, spices, teas, coffees, samples of commercial woods, and all mercantile objects not liable to decay. The commercial articles are divided into classes, and to each country is assigned its compartment for the permanent exhibition of its merchandise belonging to a given class. Rooms for this object have been opened in the exchange building known as the Bourse, where the Oriental Museum is now established. A small admission fee is charged, which goes to the funds of the society. So far as these goods are imported into Austria the exposition serves a double purpose. It gives to the dealer the means for distinguishing the genuine from the imitation. It gives to the manufacturer the means for copying models, styles, colors, and designs, and perhaps for opening new branches of manufacture for both home and foreign trade.

The journals some months since reported that Secretary Evarts had recommended such an establishment to the merchants of New York. I believe it would be of even more value to manufacturers than to merchants. Under proper conditions it is probable that eastern governments, as well as manufacturers and merchants, would contribute to the contents of such a museum at New York.

JOHN A. KASSON,
Minister.

LEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES,
Vienna, March 23, 1881.

THE ORIENTAL ACADEMY; COMMERCIAL EDUCATION.

REPORT, BY MINISTER KASSON, ON THE AIDS TO DIPLOMATIC AND CONSULAR SERVICE.

In the year 1753 was founded at Vienna the "Oriental Academy." It is an institution designed to prepare a corps of agents for the government, who shall be specially fitted to advance the political and commercial interests of Austria-Hungary in the Oriental world. The government of Maria Theresa believed that persons under direct training by and allegiance to the government which they served, and with all their interests identified with the home country, would be much more useful than the natives of some foreign land who would otherwise fill these posts.

Believing, myself, that an institution under the control of our government, and designed to teach the law of nations, the law of commerce, and the languages spoken in the most important foreign countries with which we now have or desire to develop commerce, will soon be appreciated as a necessity in the United States, I have carefully inquired into the cost, management, course of study, and rules of the "Oriental Academy" at Vienna. The result of that inquiry will, I hope, not be

without interest to the Department of State. My report is based upon information obtained from the director, Mr. Barb, himself an eminent linguist and Oriental scholar.

I. The number of students is limited to fifty. Any student who has finished his course of study at the gymnasium may apply for admission to the academy. Precedence is given to those who have excelled in their gymnasial studies, and eight of the best students are maintained at the academy without pay. The others must pay 800 florins annually for board and tuition. To the funds thus provided, the government adds annually 22,000 florins as its grant toward the support of the institution. The total annual cost of maintaining the Academy approximates the sum of 50,000 florins. There is an entrance fee of 100 florins.

II. The course of study covers five years. The corps of professors and tutors numbers fifteen. There are two divisions of study; the first embraces jurisprudence and political science; that is to say, the diplomatic history of states, and international law (taught in French), statistics, national law, and financial science, commercial law and bills of exchange, civil and criminal law and modes of precedure, and the consular system. The second division is that of languages. These embrace the Turkish, the written Arabic, and common Arabic, Persian, modern Greek, French, Italian, and English. The students assume no obligation to serve the state. The eight excelling students have preference of admission into the consular and diplomatic service of the East, and may be also transferred into the same career in the West. The salaries of the teachers range from 600 to 3,000 florins.

III. The present organization of the academy is as follows:

PLAN OF STUDY.

DIVISION I.—LAW AND POLITICAL SCIENCE.

Criminal law and criminal course of pleading: Prof. Dr. Ritter von Keller.
Civil law: Prof. Dr. Singer.
Civil judicial procedure in and without litigation: Prof. Dr. Pann.
Law of commerce and bills of exchange: Prof. Dr. Pann.
Statistics, national economy, and financial science: Prof. Dr. von Neumann Spallart.
Diplomatic history of states, and international law (in the French language): Prof. Dr. Leopold Baron von Neumann.
Consular system: Prof. Dr. Leopold Baron von Neumann.

DIVISION II.—LANGUAGES.

Turkish language: Professor Plechacsek.
Turkish language: Corregititor Pekotsch.
Grammar and literature of the Arabic written language: Lecturer, Dr. Wahrmund.
Common Arabic language: George Dellal.
Persian language: Director Barb.
Modern Greek language: Tutor Damianis.
French language: Prof. Abbé Piqueré.
French language: Prof. Bréant.
Italian language: Prof. Abbé Adami.
English language: Tutor Komarek.

IV. I append to this dispatch a copy of the regulations for the admission of students to the academy as they appeared for the current academic year 1880–1881.

Some two years ago the attention of the Diplomatic and Consular offi-

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cers of the United States was called by the Secretary of State to the best modes of improving the commercial relations of the United States abroad. But all lines of thought lead back to deficiencies in our agencies. We have the arts of manufacture and the facilities of production in the highest degree. But, on the other hand, we have almost "no ships" under our own flag, under American officers, controlled by American interests, and directed to the profit of American commerce. We have few American commercial employés who speak any other language than their own. We have few native-born consuls who are really masters of any other language than English. Even after years of employment, when they have picked up shreds of a foreign language, they are often transferred to posts where the language and the usages are wholly unknown to them. A real knowledge of the interests and wants of a foreign people cannot be acquired without the facility of a common language.

As a rule such agents content themselves with mere routine, and for ordinary intercourse depend upon some poorly-paid interpreter of foreign origin, of whom the English language becomes in turn the victim. The same is true of some of our legations. The real interpreter of our interests becomes at last an irresponsible and partially-educated foreigner.

It is to be greatly desired that the United States should escape from this condition of inferiority. Occupying a continent in which it may almost be said a single language is spoken, we are almost without facilities for acquiring the practical mastery and use of foreign languages. The Pacific Ocean alone separates us from the vast commercial populations for whose trade all Europe is struggling and has been struggling for a century and more—nations which embrace nearly half the population of the globe. How many of our people can speak the language of Japan, or of China, or of the Indies? Our merchants ought to control the trade of the West Indies and of the South American States. How many of our native citizens can speak the Spanish, or write an order in that language? Both for international commercial transport and for commercial intercourse, we are dependent on foreign agencies.

There is no limit to private and public expenditure for abundant native agencies of our internal development, including schools of every grade. We have our special naval school, that men may be fitted for the work of national defense and commercial protection on the seas. We have our military school, that they may be fitted to defend the country on land. But we fit nobody for the work of developing the influence and the commerce of the United States in countries speaking other languages and having other forms of civil and social life. Yet it is in intercourse with these that our future prosperity must be largely found, and with these that our geographical situation gives us a great advantage. In those countries strangers are jealously observed. Nothing makes a man so much a stranger as the inability to converse in the common language of the people, among whom he is only one in a million. This sentiment is practically experienced in every part of the United States, in presence of the foreign-born, numerous as they are.

It is to destroy this inability and isolation of the American representatives in Asiatic and European countries, of diplomatic, consular, and commercial representatives especially, that I venture to call your attention to this foundation of an "Oriental Academy," and to raise the inquiry whether it would not inure greatly to the advantage of the United States to establish at Washington a school of languages and international law.

It would be in accord with the purposes of the Smithsonian Institu-

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tion to give room for the classes. The expense of instructors would only require a moderate grant of money by Congress. Non-partisan admission could be secured by giving to State institutions, or boards of trade, the nomination of the scholars, who should be graduates of some advanced institution of learning. Its excelling graduates should be preferred for the clerkships of the State Department, and for the Consular or inferior Diplomatic posts, for which they should be best fitted. For the others the mercantile houses having foreign relations and foreign agencies should be eager competitors. The French, German, Japanese, and Chinese languages should be taught both as written and spoken languages.

Our diplomatic history and treaties should be studied together with general diplomatic history and international law.

So far as the development of our foreign relations and the reform of our foreign civil service are concerned, this seems to me to open a useful line of action, to promise better things than the present time affords, and to be attainable at a slight cost to the government.

I have only to add that the director of this Oriental Academy informs me that, at present, the Austrian Government requires for its service in consular and diplomatic posts more of its graduates than are now at its command.

JOHN. A. KASSON.

UNITED STATES LEGATION,
Vienna, March 26, 1881.

CENSUS OF AUSTRO-HUNGARY.

REPORT BY MINISTER KASSON.

Further returns of the census of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy, taken on December 31, 1880, show the following results:

Population of Buda-Pesth in 1880	365,512
Population of Buda-Pesth in 1870	270,746
Increase in ten years	94,766
Population of Buda-Pesth in 1780	38,000
Population of all Hungary in 1880	15,608,723
Population of all Hungary in 1870	15,467,327
Increase in ten years	141,396
Population of the chief Austrian seaport, Trieste { in 1880	141,333
Population of the chief Austrian seaport, Trieste { in 1869	123,098
Increase in eleven years	18,235

The returns of the population of the Austrian monarchy are not yet announced.

JOHN A. KASSON,
Minister.

LEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES,
Vienna, March 16, 1881.

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CENSUS OF AUSTRIA CONSIDERED.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL WEAVER.

On the 31st day of December, 1880, a complete census of this empire was taken, the last one having been in 1869, or eleven years ago. The methods employed were exceedingly simple, and in this country, where each individual is registered, and to a certain extent under the direction of police and municipal officers, the plan succeeds well, and insures a promptitude and exactitude that are very commendable.

The census officials issue lists conveniently ruled and numbered so as to contain the name, age, birth-place, language, occupation, condition (married or single), and religion of every member of the household, whether resident or stranger. These lists were distributed through the agency of the hausmeisters or portiers of the various houses, who saw to it that they were properly filled up in time and returned promptly to the census officials. A circular accompanied the lists giving full and explicit direction concerning their filling up and warning all of the penalties that would follow false declarations.

The results of the census taken in Austria, as briefly described above, compare, in point of accuracy and promptitude, very favorably and, possibly, with advantage to the Austrian method, when compared with the methods employed in our country.

After ten days, the final results of districts, of cities and villages were known, but delays naturally occurred in combining and finally publishing the aggregates, so that only this morning appears for the first a published statement of the aggregate population of the city of Vienna and its numerous suburbs, which I beg to place before you in the following table, which shows the population for the city proper and of the thirty-five suburbs that are combined with Vienna and placed under the jurisdiction of the same police direction, for the years 1880 and 1869, omitting a garrison of 20,070 soldiers actually quartered in the city:

Population of Vienna and suburbs.

Name of city or suburb.	December 31, 1880.	December 31, 1869.	Increase or decrease.	Percentage.
Vienna	707,532	607,514	100,018	16.4
Oberdöbling	8,789	5,522	3,267	59.2
Unterdöbling	1,720	1,102	618	56.1
Dornbach	2,319	1,571	748	47.6
Gersthof	1,345	356	989	276.4
Hernals	60,386	32,825	27,561	83.9
Neulerchenfeld	25,877	10,093	15,784	156.4
Neustift	523	418	105	25.2
Ottakring	37,021	21,269	15,752	74.1
Pötzleinsdorf	627	512	115	21.0
Salmannsdorf	287	304	— 17	— 5.6
Obersievering	568	527	41	8.3
Untersievering	1,662	855	807	94.7
Währing	40,594	16,023	24,571	153.4
Newwaldegg	383	371	12	3.2
Weinhaus	1,448	988	460	46.5
Grinzing	1,305	1,223	82	6.6
Heiligenstadt	4,419	3,393	1,026	30.6
Josephsdorf	33	26	7	26.9
Kohlenbergerdorf	550	519	31	5.9
Nussdorf	4,296	4,029	257	6.2
Tünfhaus	40,232	27,065	3,167	48.7
Gaudenzdorf	12,501	11,692	809	6.9

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Population of Vienna and suburbs—Continued.

Name of city or suburb.	December 31, 1880.	December 31, 1869.	Increase or decrease.	Percentage.
Obermeidling	2,122	1,533	589	38.4
Untermeidling	31,551	18,132	13,419	74.0
Rudolphsheim	29,780	21,940	7,840	35.7
Techshaus	11,727	10,987	740	6.7
Hietzing	3,005	3,009	— 4	— 0.1
Schönbrunn	369	429	— 60	— 14.0
Penzing	12,933	7,683	5,250	68.3
Simmering	20,068	11,759	8,309	70.7
New Leopoldau	3,300	1,267	2,033	160.5
Muhlschüttl	2,500	819	1,681	205.2
Jedlersee	2,036	1,568	468	29.8
Jedlersdorf	6,445	1,794	4,721	273.8
Floridsdorf	5,134	3,570	1,564	43.8
Total	1,085,455	832,617	252,838	30.4

As may be seen from the foregoing table, the population of the city proper, during the last eleven years, shows an average yearly increase of 9,092 inhabitants, being equal to 1.5 per cent.; while that of the suburbs was 13,895, or 6.1 per cent.; making, for the city and suburbs, a yearly increase of 22,897 inhabitants, or 2.8 per cent. Also, that while the suburbs manifest a total increase of 67.8 per cent., the increase for the city proper was only 30.4 per cent.

According to the partial census taken April 17, 1875, Vienna proper had 673,865 inhabitants, and the suburbs 246,905; or a total of 1,020,770.

By comparing the increase of Vienna, during the last five years, with the cities of the German Empire containing over 100,000 inhabitants, the relatively small development becomes very remarkable, as will be seen from the following table, which includes the garrison of Vienna:

Cities.	1875.	1880.	Increase.	Per cent.
Vienna	1,020,770	1,106,155	85,385	8.4
Berlin	964,240	1,122,385	158,145	16.4
Hamburg	348,447	410,176	61,729	17.7
Dresden	217,295	220,216	2,921	1.4
Munich	198,829	229,343	30,514	15.3
Leipsic	127,377	148,760	21,383	16.8
Stuttgart	107,273	117,021	9,748	9.1
Hanover	106,677	137,576	30,899	28.9

One of the principal causes producing this relatively slow development is, doubtless, the expense of living in this city, occasioned by the necessity of the government having to collect enormous taxes to support its military and other departments, since not only are real estate and trade severely taxed, but houses and the necessities of life are forced to contribute the last possible kreuzer in order to keep the receipts equal to the expenses; and still the budget cannot be balanced without heavy annual loans.

The "Neue Treie Presse," in publishing the statistical table as given above, accompanies it with the following plaint:

Since the crisis of 1873 affected the commerce and industry of the German Empire equally if not more than that of Austria, the cause of the relatively slow development of Vienna cannot be owing to that crisis alone.

Social as well as political reasons have prevented a development. The comparative increase of house rents, and the custom of furnishing the rooms comfortably, may

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have had their share; but, above all, it is the ruling policy pursued by the government which is here reflected. The dual system, with its aptitude of dividing social attraction between Vienna and Pesth, and its decentralizing tendencies, are as fatal to Vienna as the strict centralization of the German Empire lent an impulse to Berlin.

Irrespective of this, however, it is apparent that not sufficient has been done for Vienna to make it an emporium of commerce; otherwise, it could not have remained behind Leipsic and Hamburg; and, finally, it seems that Vienna as a seat of art and science has not found sufficient appreciation, because this would have recompensed it for other losses

This taken into consideration should lead to serious reflection and study how to remove the causes which force our imperial city into the rear of our rivals.

JAMES RILEY WEAVER,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Vienna, February 15, 1881.

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NOTES

The publication of these Consular Reports monthly, or even more frequently than annually, was for some time so much questioned as expedient, and opposed in the matter of appropriation of an amount sufficient to meet the necessary expense, that it is strictly a duty to show what has been effected not only at home, by the more frequent issuing of these volumes, but also to show the effect abroad of the dissemination of industrial and commercial information through an authoritative channel.

Competition is not injurious but healthy, and the nation that seeks either to hide its own industry or to ignore the industry of other countries excludes itself from general improvement and general prosperity.

The agriculturists and manufacturers of the United States desire, and ask, only a fair chance in the trade of the world, and their share will be proportionate to their industry and merit. There is no disposition to undermine or drive away from any foreign port the exports of any other nation, but merely to present our staples and prices current honestly before the world, and to protect them in all foreign markets from unjust influences against their importation abroad when perfectly pure and honestly presented, and to guard against any misrepresentation acting to the detriment of the good products or good name of American exporters.

For this purpose, and this purpose only, have these publications been urged and now issued regularly every month as an exponent of good or evil that may exist at home or abroad.

Their value in this country has been indicated in many ways and from many sources.

Already their influence abroad has been noted, and other countries are adopting similar means of benefiting their own commerce.

The "Continent and Swiss Times," of Geneva, recently commented as follows on this work:

> It is a vast improvement on the former plan of an annual publication of commercial reports, as it enables the business community to profit by the observations of the consuls *before time has altered the condition* of affairs under which the report was written. * * *

And adds:

> On the 26th instant a conference of the delegates from the Swiss societies of commerce and trade, of the Bernese Geographical Society, and the commercial geographical societies of St. Gallen and Geneva will be held in Berne, under the presidency of the Chief of the Federal Department of Commerce and Agriculture, to discuss the subject of the reorganization of the Swiss consular system, with a view to furthering the Swiss trade and commerce in foreign countries, by a more effectual co-operation of the Swiss consuls abroad.

The British Trade Journal of February says:

> In pleasant contrast to the apathy and indifference with which these matters are treated in England, we cannot but note the progress which our go-ahead cousins in the United States are making in this respect. We have before us a copy of Secretary Evarts's volume, in which, in a readable form and under the title of "The Commercial Relations of the United States," is presented the pith of valuable reports on United States trade, prepared by American consuls-general, consuls, and commercial agents. These reports do not consist of loose and unreliable figures, served up with a few badly-written com-

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ments; they are evidently the results of much careful inquiry on the part of the writers; the figures are compiled with accuracy, and have some value attaching to them; while the reports themselves are brimful of suggestions, which if followed by American exporters—and they undoubtedly will be—will seriously affect the English trader.

A careful examination of the reports convinces us that in many places where the British merchant fancies himself practically without a competitor he is being slowly but surely followed by American traders. In Africa, for instance, where we have hitherto had it all our own way, we learn from the reports that America is getting in something more than the thin end of the wedge. We hold our own with Egypt, for the simple reason that the United States has no direct trade relations with that country, not a single ship flying the American flag having arrived at the port of Alexandria in 1879; but it is not so with Zanzibar. There trade appears to be falling into American hands, while in Madagascar English imports are put at $110,000 per annum, as against $383,000 from the States. On the west coast of Africa, too, America is making perceptible progress. A few particulars as regards English and American trade, summarized from the reports, will serve to show the character of the information they contain, and at the same time be of interest to English traders.

* * * * * * *

The above extracts from the reports show that our American competitors are not asleep, and will do all they can to oust our goods from their present markets. So long as we have pre-eminence in regard to means of transport we shall probably maintain our pre-eminence as a trading nation, but, with the promise of various lines of steamships from American ports, and the possible construction of the Panama Canal, it will be necessary for us to keep our eyes well open. Not only must we endeavor as much as possible to maintain our present position, but no effort must be relaxed to develop fresh markets, to compensate us for the loss which we must undoubtedly suffer from the inevitable division of our present trade with competing nations.

Although the reports published in Secretary Evarts's book are principally from American consuls, yet he informs us that much of the matter it contains is derived from other official sources—British and French particularly. He adds that to the British reports he is specially indebted for information from many places where the United States has no consular officers. In this way Mr. Evarts shows the value he puts upon our own consular reports, which, we fear, too often escape the notice of English merchants. It would be well if our foreign office would condescend to take a leaf out of Mr. Evarts's book in this respect, and give English traders a little information concerning countries where American manufactures are exclusively imported. It would also be an advantage if the foreign office would note the arrangements which the United States Government has made for the future issue of consular reports. Hitherto there has been some delay in their production, and this, Secretary Evarts thinks, has neutralized, to a large degree, the good which would have resulted from the immediate publication of many of these communications. Congress has now made provision "for printing and distributing more frequently the publication of the consular and other reports"; and this action, which was taken in response to the wishes of the leading commercial communities of the United States, as expressed through the chambers of commerce of the principal cities, bears testimony to the great value of the reports.

* * * * * * *

We wish the English foreign office would display a little of the smartness of the Department of State across the Atlantic. Then our own consular reports, which are published at very irregular periods, might be of some use; and the valuable information which they undoubtedly contain might be acted upon before it is too late for the English merchant to benefit by it.

More Exhibitions for 1881.—Besides those noted in No. 5, the Department has since been advised of the following:

At Frankfort-on-the Main, a Leather Exhibition, commencing June 15 next, and continuing three months, the particulars of which are given herein.

At Luzerne, an Agricultural Exhibition for nine days, from October 2 to 11, a prominent feature of which, Commercial Agent Dezeyk advises, will be—

The making of cheese by the "Emmenthaler" system, which has acquired the greatest fame abroad, will then be constantly exhibited in operation, so that every one can become acquainted with the manipulation of cheese manufactured by this process.

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The Swiss will make a great effort to display their finest cheeses of all varieties; and United States Agent Dezeyk adds:

Notwithstanding the great consumption at home, the export of this article averages yearly *forty millions of francs* ($8,000,000), but the Swiss seem to feel keenly of late the competition of the United States, and this is the reason why they will make a great effort to exhibit something superior, and the exhibition will therefore be of much interest to Americans.

Leather Exhibition.—Consul-General Lee advises the Department of the particulars of this exhibition, which will be international in character and contemporaneous with, although entirely independent from, the "Patent, Horticultural, and Balneatory Exhibitions" heretofore noticed (see No. 1), to be held in Frankfort on-the-Main for three months from June 15. It is to be regretted that this leather exhibition was not made known earlier to enable our dealers and manufacturers in that specialty to prepare a worthy exhibit.

Although the limit of time for the reception of articles has almost expired, it is hoped that the same may be extended, if so desired by any of our leather merchants, as it is highly desirable that the United States should be properly represented in Germany in a staple of our country that now rivals like manufactures of even England, Germany, and Austria.

The various classes of articles to be exhibited are as follows:

1. Leather of all kinds and grades.
2. Leatherware, plain and fancy, in all forms and qualities.
3. Furriers' productions, and the various kinds of colored peltries.
4. Half-tanned leather, domestic and foreign skins, hides, and peltries.
5. Tanning materials, including oils, chemicals, varnishes, and other substances used in the process of tanning and finishing hides.
6. Articles manufactured from leather waste, raw and washed bristles, and materials woven from the same, horse and calf hair, and productions therefrom, glue, artificial leather, and similar substances, wares and fabrics.
7. Imitation leather, oil-cloth, leather cloth, varnished muslin, and leather parchment.
8. All machines, apparatus, motors, tools and utensils used in tanning and finishing leather or in the preparation of glue and similar products.
9. Models, plans, inventions, and scientific or literary discussions pertaining to the leather industry.
10. Manufactured articles of which leather forms a part, as, for example, leather-covered furniture and leather tapestries.
11. Leather antiquities and articles illustrative of scientific research and discovery in the processes of preparing and finishing leather.
12. All articles not mentioned in the foregoing classification which are germane to the leather industry.

Intending exhibitors should make their announcements to the management prior to April 15, 1881. After that date the acceptance of applications will be governed by the amount of space remaining undisposed of. The delivery of articles for exhibition must be completed on or before June 7. Machinery which it requires a long time to prepare for operation must be delivered by May 10.

The comparative merits of the various articles displayed will be determined by a jury to be chosen by the exhibitors.

Gold, silver, and bronze medals will be awarded.

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Building-material Exhibition.—Consul Fox, of Brunswick, advises the Department of the following particulars relative to the exhibition to be held in that city of Germany July 1 next, as noted in No. 5.

The exhibition will include raw material, machinery, tools, and all implements and appliances used in building without limit, it being the desire of the commission having the same in charge to make it as complete as possible. The objects to be exhibited will be classified and arranged into groups in the best possible order to show the several processes of building. Provision for machinery to be exhibited in motion will be made. There will also be a historical department, for which public and private collections have been obtained. I feel that this exhibition will be of especial interest to the merchants and manufacturers of the United States, and I would advise that steps be taken towards making a display. In the long lists of objects to be exhibited there are many in which our productions excel those of any other country. Once properly exhibited I am sure that a market could be created for them here, although I would make no limitation. In my opinion, builders' hardware, stoves, ranges, closets, bath-tubs, and house furnishings in general would meet with the most success. Of my own personal knowledge I know that certain articles of small hardware have been sold here as English when they were really manufactured in the United States, the dealers themselves not knowing the difference. Our manufacturers owe it to themselves to correct such a state of things, and an occasion like this affords them opportunity to do so.

All goods sent to the exhibition may be sold, payment of 5 per cent. being required. No prizes or rewards of any kind are to be given. I regret that the time is so limited, but I have only lately been able to obtain any definite information; I must, therefore, make this announcement hastily and incomplete. I will, however, notify my colleagues in Germany, so that American agencies in their respective districts may have immediate information, and will hold myself in readiness to answer any and all questions, using every effort to advance the interests of those of my countrymen desiring to exhibit.

In a later dispatch Consul Fox adds:

My attention has been called to the fact that carpenter and joiner work, stair railings, sash, doors, &c., could also be successfully exhibited; in fact it will be a technical exhibition of building-material. Our manufacturers will, I think, thoroughly comprehend its significance. From what I can learn in regard to the exhibition, it was hardly intended or could be scarcely expected to have a display from a country so distant as our own, the date fixed for the opening being so near at hand. Nevertheless, if we offer to do so, we will be accepted, and I know treated with courtesy and fairness. Better feeling towards America and her productions is fast gaining ground here. We must make ourselves a necessity; we have made ourselves a necessity, to an extent. The commercial brain of the United States, active and restless for new things, will have abundant food for thought in this exhibition. It will be to many, perhaps, a dry affair, being thoroughly technical; it is, however, an opportunity for our manufacturers to place their productions side by side with those of this community, to be judged by men who are most fitted to select the best from the better.

I often hear it remarked by German mercantile men, "We are not sure whether goods which we purchase for American are such or not." The aim of our people should be to let foreign communities know what they can have from us, from whom they can get it, and what they must pay; then stand by our samples, and not make certain fine distinctions in our own language, which mislead and are unintelligible to foreigners.

Geographical Congress and Exhibition.—The Department has been advised by the chargé d'affaires of Italy of the following particulars and regulations prepared for the governing of this deeply interesting and dual convocation at Venice in September next, as noted in No. 5. As the papers prepared for this congress will be looked for and read with great interest in this country of travelers by students of economics, and as many, doubtless, visiting the continent of Europe would like to be in Venice at the time to reap the benefit of a scientific discussion of the influence of transitive wealth, genius, and industry from country to country by travel, emigration, commerce, &c., representation from all societies or students interested in such economies is requested.

REGULATIONS FOR THE CONGRESS.

ARTICLE 1. The third Geographical Congress will be held in Venice from the 15th to the 22d of September, 1881; a Geographical Exhibition will be held at the same time, from September 1 to September 30 of the same year.

ART. 2. The Congress and the Exhibition are placed under the high patronage of H. M. the King of Italy, and the Presidency of H. R. H. the Duke of Genoa.

ART. 3. The Congress and Exhibition are patronized by the mayor of Venice, Count Dante Serego Allighieri, by Senator Prince Giuseppe Giovanelli, of Venice, and by the two "Presidenti fondatori" of the Geographical Society, Comm. Cristoforo Negri, and H. E. Comm. Correnti.

ART. 4. The Congress is composed of honorary, effective, and adhering members.

Honorary members will be appointed according to the rules established by the committee for the Congress.

The other members will contribute, viz, effective members, 40 Italian lire; adhering members, 15 lire.

ART. 5. Every member of the Congress will be entitled to a personal ticket, to take part in the proceedings of the Congress, to free admission to the Exhibition, and to a copy of the transactions of the Congress, which will be published by the Italian Geographical Society.

ART. 6. The Congress will be divided into eight sections, viz:

I. Mathematical geography, geodesy, topography.
II. Hydrography.
III. Physical, meteorological, geological, botanical, and zoological geography.
IV. Anthropological, ethnographical, and philological geography.
V. Historical geography; history of geography.
VI. Economical geography; commercial and statistical geography.
VII. Methods, teaching, and diffusion of geography.
VIII. Explorations and travels.

ART. 6. Members of the Congress must give notice of the section or sections in which they desire to take part.

ART. 7. The chairman of each section will be elected at each successive meeting of that section.

A vice-president and a secretary will be appointed for each section, for the whole time during which the Congress is to last, as mentioned in Article 9.

ART. 8. A committee of the Congress will be intrusted with the general management of the Congress; it will be composed of the president of the Congress, of the president and vice-presidents of the organizing committee, of two special delegates of the city of Venice, and of a delegate for each of the foreign nations represented at the Congress.

The vice-presidents and secretaries of the different sections will also form part of the committee of the Congress.

ART. 9. The committee of the Congress will appoint, before the first meeting, the permanent vice-presidents and secretaries of sections.

ART. 10. The time of proceedings and other particulars, for the general and special meetings, will be fixed and published in due time by the committee of the Congress.

ART. 11. No questions can be introduced in the general or special meetings except those mentioned in the list of questions, or put on the list of motions.

Members desiring any question to be put on the list of motions must address it to the chairman of their own section, who will transmit it to the committee of the Congress; the committee will then decide on the advisability of inserting the question in the list of motions.

Speakers may use any language they prefer.

Special regulations for the order of the proceedings may be framed by the committee.

ART. 12. The resolutions of each section must be communicated, immediately after each meeting of that section, to the committee of the Congress.

ART. 13. The president or secretary of each section will submit, in writing, in the general meetings, the resolutions taken by his section; the debate and division on those resolutions will be taken in the general meetings.

ART. 14. A special seat will be kept for the representatives of the press who may desire to assist to the general meetings, on special request addressed to the committee of the Congress.

ART. 15. The organizing committee will be intrusted with the execution of the resolutions taken by the Congress.

ART. 16. Questions relating to the Congress which may arise during the proceedings will be submitted to, and decided by, the committee of the Congress.

ROME, *December* 16, 1880.

REGULATIONS FOR THE EXHIBITION.

ARTICLE 1. The International Exhibition of Geography will be opened in Venice on the 1st of September, 1881, and last up to the end of that month.

The general management and supervision of the Exhibition will be intrusted to the organizing committee and to the committee of the Third International Congress of Geography.

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ART. 2. The Exhibition will comprise books, maps, instruments and apparatuses, and all other objects belonging to the eight following classes viz:

I. Mathematical geography, geodesy, topography.
II. Hydrography.
III. Physical, meteorological, geological, botanical, and zoological geography.
IV. Anthropological, ethnographical, and philogical geography.
V. Historical geography, history of geography.
VI. Commercial geography: economical and statistical geography.
VII. Methodology, teaching and diffusion of geography.
VIII. Explorations and travels.

ART. 3. Foreign exhibitors will be represented by the commissioners specially appointed by their own governments; correspondence relating to the Exhibition must be addressed to the commissioners.

ART. 4. Italian exhibitors must write directly to the committee.

ART. 5. Should any reduction be necessary for want of space, preference will be given to such objects as have never been exhibited before, or which have been modified since they were first exhibited.

ART. 6. An international jury, to be appointed hereafter, will award the prizes viz:

I. First class medals.
II. Second class medals.
III. Honorable mentions. (*Mentions honorables.*)

ART. 7. The international jury will be composed of Italian and foreign delegates, and divided into eight sections corresponding to the eight sections of the Exhibition; the number of Italian members will not be superior to that of their foreign colleagues.

A special set of regulations, framed by the committee of the Congress, will determine the mode of appointment and the proceedings of the jury.

ART. 8. Applications for admission must be sent to the committe before May 15, 1881.

Foreign exhibitors must send their demands through their own commissioners.

Forms of application will be supplied, on request, in Italy by the committee (first section, 26 Via del Collegio Romano, Rome, or third section, Municipal Palace, Venice), and abroad, by the different commissioners.

ART. 9. For information as to the delivery of articles &c., exhibitors or their agents must communicate with third section of the organizing committee for the Geographical Congress in Venice.

ART. 10. Foreign commissioners will alone decide on the admission or exclusion of objects belonging to foreign exhibitors; objects belonging to Italian exhibitors will be examined by a special board appointed by the committee.

ART. 11. All objects must be delivered free of charge, to the third section, in the Royal Palace in Venice, between June 15 and July 30, 1881.

Exhibitors must, at the same time, present two copies of the list of objects sent by them to the representative of the third section.

The inventories will be signed by both parties, when found true, and one of the copies will be given back to the exhibitor, the other remaining with the representative of the third section.

ART. 12. Foreign commissioners will have to furnish and prepare their own sections, at their own expense: the Italian section will be furnished and prepared at the expense of committee.

The committee of the Congress will take proper measures for the safety of the objects exhibited, after consulting the wishes of the exhibitors and commissioners.

ART. 13. Special facilities will be asked from the railway and steamship companies, and custom-house authorities, for the conveyance of objects to and from Venice, and early notice to this effect will be sent to exhibitors.

ART. 14. Section 3 will take measures for preparing a complete catalogue divided in nations and classes and provided with an alphabetical index of exhibitors and of articles exhibited.

ART. 15. None of the articles exhibited can be drawn, copied, or otherwise reproduced without special permission of the exhibitor.

General views of the exhibition cannot be taken without special permission of the committee of the Congress.

ART. 16. No object can be withdrawn before the closing of the exhibition, except by a special permission of the committe of the Congress.

ART. 17. Exhibitors must withdraw their property, at their own expense, not later than October 25, 1881.

After that date, objects will be removed at the expense of their proprietor, from the Palace of the Exhibition, and deposited at their expense.

ART. 18. Exhibitors will receive a free pass, which will be strictly personal.

ART. 19. All matters not mentioned in the foregoing articles will be decided by the committee of the Congress.

Rome, December 16, 1880.

The President of the Committee:

TEANO.

The Vice-Presidents:

For the First Section, MALVANO.
For the Second Section, BARIOLA.
For the Third Section, CATTANEI.
For the Fourth Section, GERRA.

The general secretary:

DALLA TEDOVA.

The precise definition of Classes VI and VIII are herewith given, as they bear particularly upon the object of this publication.

CLASS VI.

ECONOMIC, COMMERCIAL, STATISTICAL GEOGRAPHY.

* * * * * * *

2. What classes of society in Europe furnish the most emigrants. Investigate the causes which direct the stream of emigration towards certain definite regions.

(Report by Professor Bodio, director of general statistics of the kingdom.)

3. What are means of uniting commercial and scientific interests, with a view to assist the advancement of geography and the development of commerce.

(Report by Mr. Bruniati, professor of the Royal University of Turin.)

4. In the actual communication between Europe, India, and China, among the newly projected means of conveyance, which are those that offer the greatest advantages to commerce?

5. Which are the best means of communication with the interior of Africa, and especially with the regions of Soudan and the Great Lakes. What are actually the manner and nature of exchanges.

(Report by Mr. Dalla Vedova, professor of the Royal University of Rome.)

CLASS VIII.

GEOGRAPHICAL VOYAGES AND EXPLORATIONS.

1. Ascertain if it is possible and advisable for the other groups of voyagers to perfect an international association similar to the one instituted for voyages in Africa.

2. What explorations would it be expedient to encourage, as much in the interest of science as in a commercial point of view?

(Report by Mr. G. Cora.)

3. The new methods which might be employed to raise rapidly the topographical plans in geographical explorations.

Coal and Iron yield of France.—Consul Peixotto, of Lyons, reports to the Department that the production of coal in France for the year 1880 reached 19,412,112 tons against 17,104,485 tons in 1879, the increase being for the past year 2,301,133 tons, while 1879 gave an augmentation of only 143,569 tons over 1878.

The production of cast-iron also rose from 1,400,286 tons in 1879 to 1,733,102 tons in 1880; that of iron rails from 39,980 to 41,944 tons; of bar iron from 680,219 tons to 754,444, and of iron plates from 136,872 tons to 155,920 tons. The steel rails manufactured are returned as 253,742 tons, and 279,847 tons in the two years, respectively; bar steel 64,589 tons in 1879, and 86,221 in 1880; steel plates 14,944 tons and 18,558 tons.

Swiss Embroidery.—Referring to the report of Commercial Agent Dezeyk, of St. Galle, dated February 21, and published herein, upon the condition of the embroidery industry of that district, the agent has since advised the Department that—

The effect of the overproduction of machine embroidery is still felt, notwithstanding the increased yield and more agreeable field work which has begun drawing numbers

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of stitchers from their machines, and in fact, will only be removed when a few thousand give up the pantograph and needle for the spade. * * * A considerable number of these embroiderers will emigrate to the United States to seek employment in their trade there.

Much exertion, however, is being made in the improvement of machines, and handsomer designs and better quality are already the results. The finely executed specialities of St. Galle embroidery command always a ready demand from England, Italy, and Spain, and there have been recently some shipments to China and India.

Decline of Silk Exports to the United States.—Consul Peixotto, of Lyons, makes the following comparisons of exports from his district to the United States:

The declared exports to the United States from this consular district for the first month of the year ending January 31, 1881, have been $981,142 (5,083,635.35 francs.)

	Francs.
For the same month in 1880	5,635,854 20
For the same month in 1879	6,066,332 90
For the same month in 1878	4,349,374 20

This decline relates to silk goods and goods of silk mixture, and may be attributed to the large stocks accumulated in New York, and also to the extreme difficulty under which manufacturers have labored for the past two months in determining what styles to manufacture for the American spring trade. Buyers from our side have been equally perplexed, and their orders have been exceedingly restricted. During the month the market for silk has been fairly regular with an upward tendency in prices.

The quantities of worked silks (organsies and trams) which have been passed by the *Condition des Soies* (silk testing house of Lyons) have been for the past two years as follows:

1879, organsins 1,282,488 kilos. Trams 768,955 kilos. Total 2,051,443 kilos.
1880, organsins 1,382,852 kilos. Trams 824,244 kilos. Total, 2,207.96 kilos.

Emigration from Germany.—Referring to the interesting and valuable report published in this number from Consul Catlin, the following review by Consul-General Kreismann of the report of the German commissioner of emigration for 1880, and prospect for 1881, is apropos:

I have the honor to transmit herewith a copy of the report of the German commissioner of emigration for the year 1880, as submitted by the Chancellor, Prince Bismarck, to the Reichstag. It will be seen from this document that the total number of German emigrants in the year 1880 was 106,190, of whom 63,778 were males, and 42,412 females. The Kingdom of Prussia has furnished of that total 67,679 persons, coming chiefly from the provinces of West Prussia, Pomerania, and Posen. The number of persons emigrating from the Kingdom of Bavaria was 10,921; from the Kingdom of Wurtemberg, 8,716; from the Grand Duchy of Baden, 4,867; from the Kingdom of Saxony, 4,083; from the Grand Duchy of Hesse, 3,032; from the Grand Duchies of Mecklenburg, 1,625; from the Hanseatic town of Hamburg, 1,497; from the Grand Duchy of Oldenburg, 1,001.

As regards the ports of departure, Bremen was resorted to most largely, 51,627 persons having sailed from there. Hamburg comes next in order with 42,787 persons leaving said port; in addition, 11,242 persons embarked at Antwerp, and 552 at Stettin. Of the whole number of emigrants before stated, 103,115 repaired to the United States, 2,119 to Brazil. The reasons, as stated in the report, for the preference given to the United States consist in the fact "that there an opportunity is afforded every one, by diligent work, in a comparatively short time, to gain possession of a house and land of his own, and to become independent of others and well-to-do."

As showing the class of persons emigrating, the following remarks, quoted from the report, will be found of interest:

"A very considerable number of small farmers, after disposing of their estates, have emigrated, and from what can be learned there are numerous other persons of the same category who would have likewise left the country if they could have sold their premises without too great a sacrifice. As compared with former years there are among the emigrants this year a large number of persons who were in by no means unfavorable pecuniary circumstances."

Respecting the present year all accounts agree that the number of persons emigrating from the empire will be in excess of that of the past year. Nor can it be doubted that such will be the fact when the crowds of emigrants are beheld that daily fill the railroad stations here from which the trains depart for Bremen and Hamburg.

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There are persons of all sexes and ages, infants at the breast, romping boys and girls, young men and maidens, men and wives of mature years, and gray-haired sires. Well-dressed and of strong and healthy appearance, these unceasing crowds forsake the country of their birth for the land of promise beyond the seas, where they hope to find and possess free and happy homes of their own. As long ago as last December their passages have been secured, and for months to come, it is reported, all available places on Bremen and Hamburg steamers are engaged. Nor do the apparent efforts made on the part of the authorities everywhere to stem the tide avail; "the cry is, still they come."

Emigrants from Bremen.—A cablegram to the department from Consul Grinnell, of Bremen, of the 1st instant, advised the departure of over 4,000 emigrants from that port for the United States in one day, making 20,000 since the beginning of the year from his district alone; all of best class. This has since been confirmed by that consul, viz:

By the steamship Frankfort for Baltimore and New Orleans	1,352
By the steamship Kronprinz for Baltimore	1,086
By the steamship General Werder for New York	1,568
Total	4,006
Departure first quarter 1881	20,377
Departure first quarter 1880	8,890
Increase	11,487

MONEY COMING WITH EMIGRANTS.—Consul Grinnell adds:

The emigrants this year are, without exception, of the best agricultural and industrial classes, taking money with them, the saving of years, the proceeds of their little tenements sold here, &c. My own inquiry and observation confirm the truth of the statements of the German journals that Germany has never before lost such numbers of worthy and industrious people as are this year emigrating to the United States, and that the loss to the German Empire can scarcely be overestimated.

Immigration into the Argentine Republic, 1880.—Consul Baker, of Buenos Ayres, makes the following review of the recent report on immigration into that country and the working thereof:

The commissioner of immigration of the Argentine Republic has just published the returns of immigrants to this country for the year 1880. The total number of arrivals was 41,615, against 50,205 during the previous year, being a falling off of 8,590. The cause of this, however, is found in the civil war which occurred here during the months of last June and July, during which time the port of Buenos Ayres was not only closed but carefully blockaded.

Of the immigrants who reached these shores 15,008 came in steamers by way of Montevideo; and as they reached here from the latter port in the river boats no account of their sex and nationality was obtained. The number of immigrants direct to Buenos Ayres was 26,643, classified by the commissioner as follows, viz, 14,171 men, 5,717 women, 2,986 boys, and 2,152 girls. Their nationalities are as follows, viz:

Nationality.	Number.	Nationality.	Number.
Italians	18,416	North Americans	21
Spanish	3,112	Danes	14
French	2,175	Hungarians and Poles	2
Swiss	581	Russians	8
English	588	Fins	10
Portuguese	34	Swedes and Norwegians	4
Germans	445	Brazilians	21
Belgians	57	Uruguayans	15
Austrians	879	Bolivians	4
Greeks and Turks	11	Peruvians	4
Mexicans	1	Chilians	2
Paraguayans	5	Various	234

These immigrants are mostly farmers; and coming as they have with their families, show thereby their intention of making the Argentine Republic their permanent home.

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Upon their arrival they were at once transferred to the agricultural colonies in the interior. Most of them were sent to the province of Santa Fé, others to that of Entre Rios, and still others to the Gran Chaco, on the Upper Paraná River, where some flourishing settlements have lately been made.

A movement is now being made by the Argentine Government to secure immigration in larger numbers from Germany, Sweden, and Norway, with a view to the colonization of the extreme southern portions of the province of Buenos Ayres and Patagonia, the climate of the latter country corresponding almost exactly to that of Northern Europe. A commissioner has been appointed to visit the countries named, expressly charged with the mission of setting forth the advantages which the Argentine Republic offers to those who are seeking for new homes.

There is also a proposition now under consideration to secure an immigration hitherward from Ireland, the troubled and unsatisfactory state of that country, and the unfortunate condition of its people creating here the impression that if free farms were offered a large exodus might be induced to the fertile pampas of the Argentine Republic. The fact that a great proportion of the sheep farmers of this province are Irishmen who sought homes here to better their condition, adds weight to the impression that the proposed movement would be a successful one.

From these and other considerations I am led to believe that the present year will show a greater influx of immigrants to this republic than any previous year in its history.

American Indian Corn.—Consul Elfwing, of Stockholm, writes to the Department the following interesting and valuable information regarding this great staple:

Among the articles imported last year from the United States to Sweden, maize, or Indian corn, occupies a prominent place. Not much has before been used in this country, and I believe it has chiefly come from Hungary, or been bought in English ports. It has heretofore been used almost exclusively in the distilleries, but now they have also begun to use it as food for cattle; the largest part of the corn imported last year was so used. A few enterprising bakers even tried it, mainly mixing it with wheat flour for bread. From the beginning of this year a duty of 1.5 öre per kilogram has been fixed, mainly, according to a statement in the discussion of the bill, to keep up the price of potatoes; and that, taken together with the greater use of it, may be taken as the reason for importing it now on so large a scale. If the duty will remain is another thing. At the Diet, just begun, a bill for removing the duty has been presented, and the majority which determined it was very small. The present duty is, however, not prohibitory, and the import will continue, although, during the present year, it will probably not be so large as in the last. I understand that the importers have not sold all they took in. The expected duty forced the import somewhat, but there is no question that maize has not a permanent foothold in the country now.

I give here a table of the direct imports to this country, and the ports to which they have been carried:

	Bushels.
Stockholm	386,815
Nykjöping	24,463
Norrkjöping	39,539
Carlskrona	44,574
Carlshamn	71,478
Christianstad	17,503
Ystad	163,673
Malmö	155,817
Helsingborg	26,820
Gottenburg	110,212
Uddwalla	21,545
Total	1,041,443

But as the total import amounted to 1,567,107 bushels, it may be taken for granted that at least three-fourths, if not all, of the remaining 526,644 bushels were taken from the United States. It came here from English, German, and Danish ports.

Of wheat, 292,822 bushels were imported to Sweden; of which, 44,696 bushels were taken direct from the United States to Stockholm. Prominent business men think that more wheat will this year be imported direct from the United States.

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Corn of the East.—Taking a view of the same staple from an antipodal point of cultivation, the following report from Consul-General Schuyler is of interest:

It is claimed here that the Moldavian maize, which is the chief article of export from Roumania (amounting in 1879 to 1,244,760,000 pounds, of the value of $13,579,000), is far superior in quality to the maize coming from the United States, and that it sells throughout Europe at a higher price.

It has occurred to me that if the consul at Galatz were instructed to send to the Department of Agriculture specimens of the different qualities of Roumanian maize in sufficient quantity, practical experiments might be made as to whether these were in reality superior to the varieties cultivated in the United States, and if, so, whether their culture could not be introduced with us.

American Ramie.—The great value of this plant, indigenous to many parts of this country, was shown in No. 3, p. 116, in the interesting and instructive report by Consul Potter, of Crefeld. There are many terms for this plant: "ramie," "rameh," "ramich," "rheea," "China grass," and wild hemp. The latter, however, is most generally known in this country. The value of its fiber is fully utilized in Germany, as may be seen in the samples of "cosmos wool" cloth sent to the Department by Consul Potter with the dispatch above referred to, and in the dispatches of Consul Stanton, of Barmen, page 554 of this number. It is also regarded of great value in India, as recently the British minister to this country published the following:

In 1870 the Government of India offered a prize of £5,000 to the inventor of the best machine for the preparation of the fiber of the *Böhmeria nivea* (rheea, ramie, and China grass).

Many persons declared their intention to compete, but only one machine was brought to the place of trial. The machine was carefully tested in 1872, and found imperfect. The inventor was, however, presented with £1,500, in consideration of the partial measure of success he had attained after great perseverance.

This machine has not been adapted to practical use, and no improved process of preparing the fiber of the rheea has been yet discovered. Meanwhile the demand for rheea continues, and the conditions which induced the Government of India in 1870 to offer a prize remain substantially unchanged.

The smaller reward, not exceeding 10,000 rupees (£4,400), will be given to the inventor of the next best machine or process, provided it is adjudged to possess merit, and to be capable, without difficulty, of adaptation to practical use.

The machinery employed must be simple, strong, durable, and inexpensive, and should be suited for erection in the plantation where the rheea is grown. It must be adapted for treatment of the fresh stems, as cut from the plant.

Tobacco inspection in New York.—Consul Grinnell transmits to the Department the following notes in explanation of this subject, which are herein given to correct the wrong impressions prevailing in the minds of many people in this connection:

CORRESPONDENCE IN RELATION TO THE NEW YORK TOBACCO INSPECTION.

Complaints of the manner of inspecting, and the preparation of samples of tobacco for the Bremen market.

[Letter No. 1.]

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Bremen, October 22, 1880.

SIR: I have the honor to advise you that there are many and bitter complaints in Bremen—the largest tobacco market in Europe—of the New York inspection; and the principal importers and merchants dealing exclusively in our tobacco have requested me to appeal to you for redress.

The samples are unfairly "drawn," and, what seems to cause almost equal dissatisfaction, they are clipped, trimmed, and pressed—especially the stubs—and generally "fixed up," as only we know how to do. Now, the tobacco is sold almost invariably

by these samples "to arrive," and when the goods reach here they are resampled by disinterested experts, and the difference is so marked, the Bremen sample is so rough and ragged, that the buyer declares an inferiority, and often makes (and gets) a claim of 5 to 8 or 9 per cent., which is a dead loss to the importer. When, as is more infrequent, the claim is 10 per cent. or over, he can recover from the seller on your side. But even then, as letter No. 1, which I inclose, says very truly, a buyer wants the quality and kind which he buys, and even the granting of his own reclamation does not indemnify him equitably.

I respectfully request, on behalf of our own commercial good name, as well as on that of the Bremen merchants, that you will cause the tobacco inspectors—more especially the hogshead tobacco, *i. e.*, Kentucky, Ohio, Virginia, &c., to "draw" samples honestly, and—what is of greater consequence than at first appears—cease clipping and pressing the stumps of the said samples. The Louisville, Paducah, and Clarksville samples are made up satisfactorily, and if you will cause the inspectors to adopt this style it will aid in increasing our business with this important mart.

I am, sir, with great respect, your very obedient servant,

WILLIAM F. GRINNELL,
United States Consul.

S. D. BABCOCK, Esq.,
President Chamber of Commerce, New York.

This letter was made public in the month of January, 1881, and at least one prominent tobacco merchant of New York sent, or permitted to be sent, through the Associated Press, extracts from his speech at the meeting of the New York Tobacco Trade, on January 10, 1881, in which the consul's charges were called "magnified and unfair," and saying that steps would be taken to prove them "grossly exaggerated," &c. The journals from America containing these dispatches reached Bremen precisely at the time when Messrs. Kulenkampff Brothers, of Bremen, brought to the consulate samples of three hogsheads tobacco showing a difference of 33⅓ per cent. against the New York samples.

Consul Grinnell was thus forced to write—

[Letter No. 2.]

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Bremen, February 4, 1881.

SIR: Referring to my official letter of October 22, 1880, respecting the unfair drawing and the unwise manipulation and embellishment of the samples of hogshead tobacco sampled at New York, and in consequence of the remark of Mr. D. L. Wallace, at the tobacco meeting of January 10, that the consul's charges were "magnified and unfair," which remark was telegraphed throughout the country, I have the honor to forward to you, under my official seal, samples of three hogsheads of Kentucky tobacco bought in New York by Messrs. Toel, Rose & Co., for Messrs. Kulenkampff Bros., of this city, from samples "drawn" by Messrs. Dawid Dows & Co., Brooklyn, and also samples of the same three hogsheads "drawn" on the 25th of January ultimo, by the sworn samplers appointed by the senate of Bremen.

I inclose the affidavit of Mr. C. G. Kuhlenkampff, one of the firm above mentioned, the certificate of the expert samplers above named, and the appraisement note of the two sworn brokers.

It is proper to state that the difference in this case is an exceptionally large one, the loss being equal to the value of one hogshead out of three.

I am, sir, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

WILLIAM F. GRINNELL,
United States Consul.

S. D. BABCOCK, Esq.,
President of the Chamber of Commerce, New York.

On the 17th day of March the United States consul received from the president of the Chamber of Commerce of New York the following letter, No. 3, in which was inclosed a letter from the committee appointed by the tobacco trade, which is also added below:

[Letter No. 3.]

[Chamber of Commerce of the State of New York. Samuel D. Babcock, president. George Wilson, secretary.]

NEW YORK, *March* 3, 1881.

SIR: I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of your valued communications of October 22, 1880, and February 4 last, and of the documents referred to in the latter; and in reply I beg leave to state that this chamber, though not representing any particular branch of trade, has duly appreciated the importance of the subject

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brought before it by your letters, and has acted in the premises in the manner and with the result which I now take pleasure in reporting to you.

In order to bring the grievances with regard to the drawing and fixing up the New York samples of hogshead tobacco before the parties immediately interested, your letter of October 22 was brought to the notice of several leading tobacco merchants, who called a meeting of the trade held on January 10, when the matter was, after discussion, referred to a special committee, whose report, embodied in a letter directed to you, which I have the honor to inclose herewith, was unanimously adopted by another meeting held by the tobacco trade on January 27.

From the tenor of this letter and from a printed report of the discussion held at that meeting, which is likewise inclosed, you will observe that, although your strictures are characterized as transcending the facts as stated in your letter, the grievance was nevertheless in substance admitted to be well founded, and that measures were recommended which were calculated to re-establish the confidence of foreign markets in the correctness of samples drawn by the New York inspectors.

It will be gratifying to you to hear that these recommendations are being carried out to the satisfaction of our exporters, and I trust that the good effect of your praiseworthy efforts for the improvement in so important a basis of our trade will soon be realized also on your side.

The particular case referred to in your letter of February 4 appears to be one of false packing or sampling, for which proper redress can be had from the New York inspectors. So far as any security can be provided against such occurrences, the above-mentioned action of the trade, of which, at the date of your last letter, you could not have been informed, would seem to be all that could be done. This chamber therefore consider further action in the premises unnecessary, and have directed the documents and samples to be delivered to the correspondents of the Bremen sufferers, Messrs. Toel, Rose & Co., of this city, who, we understand, are preparing a claim on the inspectors.

In conclusion, I beg to express my regret that this reply has been unavoidably delayed to this date, and to assure you of the high consideration with which I have the honor to be, sir, yours, very respectfully,

S. D. BABCOCK,
President.

WILLIAM F. GRINNELL, Esq.,
United States Consul, Bremen.

[Letter No. 4.]

NEW YORK, *January* 19, 1881.

DEAR SIR: Your letter of October 22 last, addressed to S. D. Babcock, esq., president of our Chamber of Commerce, was published in our newspapers of 7th instant; a meeting of the tobacco trade, to consider it, was held on the 10th instant, and the undersigned were, at that meeting, appointed a committee to reply to it. Owing to the indisposition of one of our number we could not arrange a conference till to-day.

While we thank you for your kindly intentions and your efforts to facilitate business between our respective markets, we regret that you considered it your duty, in this public manner, to charge our inspectors with drawing unfair samples. They are not so charged in Mr. Haas's letter, which you inclose. They are never so charged here, where many hogsheads of their inspection are broken up daily by manufacturers and balers. We believe our inspectors to be conscientious men, trying conscientiously to perform a difficult duty; viz, to give a fair representation of hogsheads often irregularly packed, and not unfrequently designedly false packed. That they sometimes fail to give such correct representation they themselves freely admit; but though offering to pay any well authenticated claim for reclamation on this account, such claims amount annually to a very small sum.

We beg to send you herewith a full report of said meeting, and would call your attention to the testimony of by far our largest exporters, the Regie buyers, that their deliveries average up to the New York samples. This is all that can reasonably be expected, and should exonerate our inspectors from your most serious charge.

We believe that the trouble between us does not arise from drawing an unfair sample, but, to use Mr. Haas's words, "we attribute this mainly to the manner in which these samples are gotten up." We know they are neater than those drawn in Bremen that we see, or than those drawn at the Western Breaks that you see, and it is a difficult question how we can assimilate them to the latter. When a sample is first drawn at the West it has usually a neat appearance, and fairly represents both the quality and the handling of the bulk; but within five minutes after a hogshead is offered for sale, its sample has been hurriedly examined by perhaps twenty buyers, its leaves opened, and its whole appearance often completely changed. A fresh sample from that hogshead would naturally be more compact and of smoother appearance, though not intrinsically better than the original one. In this market, where tobacco frequently remains a year unsold, the samples must necessarily be tied more firmly and

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carefully, and must also be handled carefully both by buyer and seller; therefore a fresh sample from the same hogshead, though intrinsically equal to the original one of recent date, would naturally show little or no improvement in appearance.

After freely conferring about the whole subject we have thought proper to advise that in future our export tobacco be sampled in four places instead of three; that the size of sample be correspondingly increased (where the bundles are small we would recommend a minimum of 16 in number; where they increase in size above the Clarksville type, that the number be left to the discretion of the inspectors); that the draws be invariably put in the sample in the same relative position as taken out of the hogshead; that all hogsheads found to be false packed be so marked on cask, sample, and certificate; that no clipping or trimming of samples be allowed; and that said sample be put up as plainly as is consistent with durability.

We hope these changes may be acceptable to your buyers, and assure them of the desire of our trade to aid in every proper way in re-establishing the former commerce between our markets.

We remain, dear sir, yours, respectfully,

DAV. L. WALLACE.
R. T. POLLARD.
J. A. PAULI.
B. BERRY.
R. M. JARVIS.
E. T. TOEL.

WILLIAM F. GRINNELL, Esq.,
United States Consul, Bremen, Germany.

German Money Standard.—Consul-General Kreismann presents the following considerations of the present features favoring bimetalism in Germany, and which should be read in connection with his report on page 547 of this number:

The publication recently made of the full statistics relative to the production of silver in the German Empire during the year 1879, has given a new impulse to the question of the bimetallic monetary system in preference to a purely gold standard.

The amount of silver produced in the year named was 475,576.75 pounds Troy, which at the present average price of $13.15 per pound amounts to $6,311,313.

Without the present existing depreciation in the value of silver it would have amounted to $7,604,367, and it is argued therefore that by reason of the adoption of the gold standard, to which the depreciation of silver is regarded as mainly attributable, the industry of Germany has undergone in a single year a loss of $1,293,054.

Computing the production of silver from 1870 to 1879, the total of 3,860,376.22 pounds Troy is obtained, with a value of $56,878,673, while without any depreciation the value would have been $61,726,827, making a total loss of $4,848,154. For the year 1880 it is estimated that a further loss of several millions has ensued, losses which, if the gold standard be definitely maintained, it is deemed will of necessity progressively increase from year to year. On the other hand, by returning to the double standard, silver, it is believed, would regain its former value, and the German silver production would show a proportionate yearly increase of value—presumably amounting to not less than $1,300,000 per annum. This result, so important in itself, assumes all the more importance in view of the great fact that silver in Germany in the main constitutes a secondary product, but still as such alone renders it possible to carry on certain other important branches of industry; notably so, the lead and copper production, and likewise the production of numerous chemicals, in the manufacture of which extensive German interests are involved. The silver product resulting from these sources sustains and renders the industries referred to profitable; and Prince Bismarck, in his efforts to favor and protect home products and manufactures, it is maintained cannot fail, in view of the considerations urged, to favor the abandonment of further attempts to prevent an early return to the gold and silver standard.

Silk trade of France, 1880.—Supplementary to the reports on the production, industry, and trade of this staple by Consul Peixotto, published in this number, the Department has since received the following additional tables, which contribute interest and value to the data preceding, and should be connected therewith.

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TABLE No. 1.—*Imports into France of silks, cocoons, and silk goods, for the year* 1880.

Description.	England.	Switzerland.	Italy.	Germany.	United States.	China.	Turkey.	Spain.	Belgium.	Other countries.	Total quantities.	Total value.
SILKS AND COCOONS.	*Kilogs.*	*Kilogs.*	*Kilogs.*	*Kilogs.*	*Kilogs.*	*Kilogs.*	*Kilogs.*	*Kilogs.*	*Kilogs.*	*Kilogs.*	*Kilogs.*	*Francs.*
Cocoons	16,000	.....	469,300	.....	.....	114,800	539,900	.....	.....	540,500	1,680,500	24,367,250
Raw silks, dappions included	250,700	.....	702,300	.....	.....	2,085,600	236,309	.....	.....	834,600	4,109,500	184,927,500
Raw silks, thrown	52,500	4,930	905,100	1,200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,400	965,800	61,811,200
Dyed silks, sewing, embroidery, and others	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	16,300	681,700
Bourres and frisons in mass	110,200	194,500	1,544,000	.....	.....	.....	406,900	51,700	.....	1,781,700	4,089,000	49,068,000
Bourres combed and carded	7,000	10,300	87,100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	17,800	133,400	2,668,000
Bourres in thread or fleuret	133,000	122,300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	103,800	359,100	8,618,400
Total	579,700	331,700	3,719,700	1,200	.....	2,199,800	1,183,700	51,700	.....	3,289,800	11,353,600	332,142,050
TISSUES OF SILK.												
Tissues of plain pure silk	72,153	134,372	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	100,477	307,002	23,639,854
Tissues, figured	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,499	299,880
Tissues mixed with gold or silver	.....	.....	.....	118,283	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	276	23,400
Tissues mixed with other materials, plain	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	53,060	171,343	12,508,039
Tissues, mixed, figured	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	453	39,864
Gauzes and crapes of pure silk or mixed	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	15,393	2,001,090
Tulles	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	10,032	551,760
Laces	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	100
Tissues of waste silk (mixed and pure, foulard's included)	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	33,648	1,606,182
Hosiery, silk or waste silk	.....	2,039	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	9,455	822,585
Ribbons, velvet, pure silk	.....	.....	.....	710	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	17	727	78,516
Ribbons, pure silks and others	.....	.....	.....	1,240	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	155	4,343	447,329
Ribbons of mixed silk and other materials	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	247	30,193
Total	72,153	137,321	.....	120,242	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	153,709	555,418	42,048,092

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TABLE No. 2.—*Exports from France of silks, cocoons, and silk goods for the year* 1880.

Description.	England.	Switzerland.	Italy.	Germany.	United States.	China.	Turkey.	Spain.	Belgium.	Other countries.	Total quantities.	Total value.
SILKS AND COCOONS.	*Kilogs.*	*Kilogs.*	*Kilogs.*	*Kilogs.*	*Kilogs.*	*Kilogs.*	*Kilogs.*	*Kilogs.*	*Kilogs.*	*Kilogs.*	*Kilogs.*	*Francs.*
Cocoons	.....	39, 634	676, 475	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	11, 858	729, 947	10, 949, 205
Raw silks, duppions included	58, 160	414, 571	726, 708	94, 896	.....	.....	.....	90, 541	848	270, 455	1, 656, 269	86, 125, 988
Thrown silks	1, 270	26, 374	7, 362	25, 857	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	7, 426	68, 265	4, 778, 810
Dyed sewing silks	8, 185	.....	.....	18, 149	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	11, 864	38, 198	1, 451, 524
Other silks	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	233, 905	16, 841, 160
Bourres and frisons in mass	431, 695	438, 670	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	506, 448	1, 376, 813	18, 586, 976
Bourres, combed and carded	.....	463, 369	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	227, 204	690, 633	17, 956, 458
Other bourres	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	150, 160	4, 054, 320
Bourres in thread or waste silk	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	284, 768	569, 536
Total	499, 310	1, 482, 618	1, 412, 631	138, 882	.....	.....	.....	90, 541	848	1, 035, 305	5, 228, 958	161, 333, 977
SILK TISSUES.												
Tissues of plain pure silk	495, 548	20, 640	28, 794	81, 373	361, 685	.....	4, 059	52, 245	30, 580	83, 197	1, 161, 121	95, 211, 922
Tissues, figured	53, 804	.....	677	.....	41, 678	.....	.....	.....	.....	25, 624	121, 783	15, 222, 875
Tissues mixed with gold or silver	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	17, 021	2, 022, 950
Tissues mixed with other materials, plain or figured	520, 549	16, 219	71, 202	96, 609	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	537, 914	1, 242, 493	60, 882, 157
Tissues, mixed, figured	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	60, 700	5, 220, 200
Gauzes and crapes, pure silk	49, 951	.....	.....	.....	8, 703	.....	.....	.....	.....	27, 005	85, 659	12, 163, 578
Silk tulles	55, 744	.....	7, 651	.....	22, 473	.....	.....	.....	7, 594	12, 674	106, 136	6, 368, 160
Laces	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	578, 172
Laces mixed with gold or silver	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	274	65, 760
Tissues of pure bourre silk, foulards included	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	33, 605	1, 817, 910
Tissues of mixed bourre silk	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	52, 483	2, 519, 184
Hosiery	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	9, 376	2, 025, 216
Gold or silver trimmings	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	21, 052	1, 770, 516
Trimmings, pure silk	40, 393	.....	.....	.....	34, 608	.....	.....	.....	.....	35, 200	110, 201	9, 091, 583
Trimmings, mixed silk	75, 387	.....	8, 182	.....	.....	.....	.....	15, 265	.....	21, 904	120, 738	6, 399, 114
Ribbons, pure silk, velvet	2, 485	.....	.....	657	4, 307	.....	.....	.....	.....	2, 695	10, 144	1, 420, 160
Ribbons, pure silk, others	10, 786	.....	.....	8, 711	11, 335	.....	.....	.....	.....	18, 033	48, 865	5, 201, 679
Ribbons, mixed silk, velvet, and others	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	147, 463	11, 893, 979
Ribbons, pure bourre silk or mixed	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	4, 996	424, 660
Total	1, 304, 647	36, 859	116, 506	187, 350	484, 789	.....	4, 059	37, 510	38, 174	764, 246	3, 354, 170	240, 879, 875

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TABLE No. 3.—*Imports and exports of cocoons, silks, and silk goods for nine years, i. e., from 1871 to 1879.*

FRANCE—IMPORTS.

	Cocoons, silks, and waste silks.	Silk or waste silk tissues.	Total.
	Francs.	*Francs.*	*Francs.*
1879	316,410,000	38,033,000	354,443,000
1878	321,194,000	35,844,000	357,038,000
1877	226,519,000	32,459,000	258,978,000
1876	543,824,000	37,982,000	581,806,000
1875	330,120,000	37,232,000	367,352,000
1874	322,285,000	32,801,000	355,086,000
1873	352,022,000	30,535,000	382,557,000
1872	423,550,000	49,261,000	472,811,000
1871	418,489,000	40,758,000	459,247,000
EXPORTS.			
1879	158,601,000	226,745,000	385,346,000
1878	129,646,000	252,934,000	382,580,000
1877	120,224,000	259,201,000	379,405,000
1876	172,340,000	295,671,000	468,011,000
1875	133,046,000	375,665,000	508,711,000
1874	96,455,000	414,900,000	521,355,000
1873	100,188,000	477,688,000	577,876,000
1872	134,261,000	435,848,000	570,109,000
1871	108,135,000	482,112,000	590,247,000

Quinine.—Whether the admission of this article free of duty is advantageous to the people of the United States is a question for careful study. Consul Randall, of Sabanilla, writes as follows:*

In the late consul's report you see what he says will be the result on the trade in quinia bark, and how the reduction would affect the movement of the article to the States. You will appreciate the accuracy of this prediction by comparing the following statement:

	Bales.
Peruvian bark shipped to New York in 1879	33,560
Peruvian bark shipped to New York in 1880	19,794
Decrease in bales	13,766
Decrease in value	$688,300

This represents the raw material, which would be augmented greatly before reaching the consumer in merchantable form. The loss of this trade will be more seriously felt in the future, as new quinia fields have recently been discovered and a very large amount of capital invested to develop the business. The output next year will undoubtedly be increased to a very large amount, and *will find its market in Europe*, there manufactured, and *consumed in the United States*. This is the direct result of the free-trade success on this item of the United States tariff. Fortunately the loss in the quina trade is more than balanced by increased production, and the introduction and corresponding increased activity caused by the competition of foreign capital.

Industry in Mexico.—Consul Willard, of Guaymas, shows that enterprise and industry are supplanting anarchy and political confusion in Mexico. He says:

The work on the Sonora Railway has increased the amount of money in circulation among the working class, which, together with the considerable influx of strangers visiting the country prospecting for mines and seeking opportunities for investments in the various industries of the district, commercial, agricultural, and especially the increased interest in the mines, have caused a demand for all articles of consumption, both native and foreign production.

The value of importations at this port by sea has increased over last year nearly 150 per cent., and amounts in round numbers to nearly $1,000,000, over two-thirds of said imports coming from the United States.

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* See also report of Consul-General Adams, of Bolivia, p. 515 of this number.

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At a distance of three-quarters of a mile from the western extremity of the city of Guaymas as at present built, but within the municipality, about 60 acres of ground adjoining the site of the railway workshops, depot, &c., has been laid out in streets and lots, which have been approved by the municipality as forming part of the city. Several lots have been sold, and the proximity of the railway improvements will undoubtedly soon cause the whole plat to be improved and built upon.

The telegraph line between this point and Mazatlan still remains unconstructed, but is still in contemplation.

The telegraph line from this place to Hermosillo has been in successful and uninterrupted operation since my last report, to the great advantage and convenience of the public.

A project has been perfected, under a concession granted by the government of the State in 1875, for supplying the city with water from unfailing wells in San José de Guaymas, about five miles from this place. Surveys have been made and arrangements are now pending for the construction of the work. A concession has also been granted for the construction of a street railroad, which it is expected will be commenced during the following year. A number of Mexican gentlemen have formed an association in the interior for the purpose of developing the mining, agricultural, and other industries in that part of this district.

All these projects have originated under the impulse of work being commenced on the railways.

Americans buying Mexican mines.—Consul Willard also reports an increased demand for mining investments by Americans in Mexico; as follows:

The mining interests of this State have not greatly advanced since my last annual report, but the commencement of construction of the railway has given new impulse to mining enterprise; many parties have been actively investigating the silver and gold bearing districts of the State. Several capitalists are in treaty for mines; also a number of mines have been sold (principally to Americans) where negotiations have been in progress. Among the latter is the mining property known as Las Prietas, 85 miles from this point, which sold for $200,000 to a New York company (the Minas Prietas Mining Company, limited). The mine is gold and silver; the ore is low grade, but abundant. A large amount of money is being expended developing the mine and erecting machinery, which give every promise of good returns.

The San Felix Mining Company, whose mines are situated in the vicinity of Altar in this district, are building a mill on the coast near Point Lobos, where there is a roadstead. The McGruder and Juarez Mining Company, also in the district of Altar, are erecting machinery at their mines. The North Mexico Mining Company have purchased the Quintero Mine, near Alamos, for the sum of $200,000; they are New York parties, and are negotiating for other mines in the vicinity.

The Baranca, Bronces, Trinidad, Libertad, and Promontorio (foreign companies) are all being worked with profit, as well as the extensive gold mine of Los Mutalos.

Within the twenty-league zone some good mines have been discovered and prospected by native miners, but the law which denies to foreigners the right to acquire real estate or mining property within that zone prevents the investment of capital in any enterprise.

This law we hope will be changed in time, for, as stated in my last report, there are many mines within this distance of the frontier that would be worked but for this prohibition.

The government continues to manifest its desire to encourage this branch of industry, as they do not interfere with the workmen by forcing them into military service, neither do they impose forced loans on mining property.

Olive Oil and its adulterations.—Consul Crosby, of Florence, advises the Department of this growing evil in Italy, and adds interest to the reports of Consul Gould, of Marseilles, and Vice-Consul General Hooker, of Rome, that will be found in this number:

During the past three or four years immense quantities of cotton-seed, both in the crude state and as cotton oil, have been imported from the United States into Italy, and Italian merchants have mixed this with the pure olive oil and reshipped it to the United States and also to England as pure olive oil, realizing therefor enormous profits. So great has been this adulteration that within the past year this nefarious operation has reacted upon these Italian merchants, by many English and American buyers declining to make further purchases, and, although last year the oil crop was not a large one in Italy, there is on hand now at different shipping ports large quantities of so-called "pure olive oil" awaiting purchasers. In 1877 Italy exported 50,248,800 kilograms of olive oil, valued at 60,000,000 lire, but during 1878 and 1879, although I am unable to get at the actual figures, I learn from the best authority, that the exports

have fallen off greatly, owing, as I said before, to this adulteration. Cotton oil has to pay an import duty coming into Italy of only 6 lire per quintal (about 220 pounds), while olive oil entering into the United States has to pay $1 per gallon.

So serious has become this system of adulteration among the Italian oil merchants along the Mediterranean coast especially, and in Tuscany, that a deputy in the Italian Parliament has already introduced a bill levying a heavy duty upon American cotton seed and oil (14 lire per quintal for the manufactured oil), besides the 6 lire already placed upon it. This same member stated in the House of Deputies at Rome that unless people could deal directly with the proprietors of the estates growing olives that very little pure olive oil was even obtainable in Italy itself. Another member of the Italian Parliament clearly proved that this mixture of cotton and olive oil was very deleterious and unhealthy. However, owing to the objections of some members, representing Genoese and other chambers of commerce, no result was obtained to correct this evil, these deputies claiming that should any heavy duties be placed upon American cotton seed and oils, that this trade would be diverted from Italy to Marseilles, which now receives one-half. Geneva and Marseilles enjoy the unenviable honor of having received in 1878, 9,000,000 kilograms of cotton-seed oil for adulteration. At present, from these causes, Spain is obtaining a larger amount of orders for pure olive oil.

Olive Oil in Petroleum Barrels.—Consul Marston, of Malaga, sends to the Department the following interesting account of a strike of 6,000 coopers against the use of second-hand barrels for exporting olive oil, a strike in which more than the strikers are interested.

The customs law in Spain permits buyers to import petroleum from the United States in barrels, but no duty is charged on the packages if they are again exported; consequently, these barrels are allowed to enter Spain, the party executing a bond guaranteeing that they shall be exported from the country. To this the coopers object, and in order that their case may come properly before the authorities, they have refused to work on and repair petroleum barrels, which are required for the exportation of common olive oil to different parts of the world, and to-day the strike is in full operation.

The merchants and dealers in oil have applied to the civil governor of Malaga to know if they will have the necessary protection extended to them should they decide to import, from other parts of Spain, coopers to do the necessary repairs to petroleum barrels, and in that way circumvent the plans of those who are leaders in this movement.

On the other hand, the leaders have applied to the authorities, and have demanded that petroleum barrels shall be taxed with a customs duty as a protection to their trade as barrel-makers, on the ground that staves imported into Spain pay a heavy duty, and that the present regulations, admitting free petroleum barrels, is a direct injury to their business. Besides, they also claim that large numbers of these second-hand barrels are used in sending oil, principally to England, from which place they are returned promptly to Spain empty, placed under the necessary export bond, again filled, shipped, and thus the barrels are kept in constant use, much against the interests of those who would profit by the making and sole use of new barrels in Malaga.

I am informed that the civil governor, in an interview to-day with the dealers in oil and the leaders of the strike, has not thus far been able to arrange matters satisfactorily, and when it is considered that those who are leaders are uneducated men, with whom it is hard to reason, knowing persons here are anxious for results in the present attitude of the parties interested.

I would add further that the local papers here have not, in any way, mentioned this subject, and it is with great difficulty that any information can be obtained.

Olive-Oil Barrel Strike continued.—Under date of March 15th, Consul Marston adds:

In my letter above referred to, instead of "6,000 coopers," it ought to read "6,000 coopers and others."

On yesterday evening a division took place between the coopers and others who are engaged in the different branches of handling and shipping oil, amounting in all to about 6,000 in Malaga, and to-day the coopers stand alone, to the number of about 300, in an attitude of defiance against the laws and the oil community in general, refusing to work, or let others work, in the preparation of second-hand petroleum barrels.

The civil governor has offered to protect, by the municipal and civil guard of Spain, any coopers brought from other parts of Spain, for the purpose of carrying forward the usual trade in oil. This was the real cause of the division in the ranks of the strikers, but the merchants, not wishing to bring about further ill-feeling with these men, have simply declined to make further purchases of oil till matters are amicably arranged. The last transactions were made yesterday, and amounted to about 3,000

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skins of oil. To-day they have refused to buy at all, and at this moment a meeting is being held for the purpose of settling such differences as exist.

Several of the more prominent oil firms received, this morning, an anonymous communication, cautioning them against further use of these petroleum barrels, under the threat that they, the merchants, would be killed if they so persisted in their use.

The result of the Olive-Oil Barrel Strike is reported the following day, March 16, by Consul Marston, as follows:

At the meeting held yesterday between the leaders of the strike and the merchants, no settlement was reached, and a further adjournment took place until to-day, at which time, it is thought, some compromise will be agreed upon. The merchants offered yesterday that the coopers should receive 1½ pesetas (about 30 cents) on every *barrel shipped*, whether repaired or not, but this offer was rejected.

The saving on the use of petroleum barrels over new ones amounts to about 7 pesetas (or $1.40) per barrel. Each barrel holds about 224 liters of oil, and there is in Malaga to-day about 7,000 barrels of 14 arobas each, or 224 liters, valued at about 1,176,000 pesetas, awaiting a settlement of this question.

The position of the Malaga merchants is an important one, not only in the present but in the future, for it is very plain that if they should yield to the demands of the strikers they could not compete with Seville and other parts of Spain in the oil trade, where second-hand petroleum barrels are wholly used for the exportation of oil.

Even at this late moment no word has appeared in the local press of Malaga upon this subject, and it serves to illustrate the difference between the newspapers of Spain and our press at home. Here they are afraid of the strikers in times of disturbance, and in times of quiet they fear the displeasure of the merchant. Thus it is with difficulty that reliable information can be obtained.

There are persons here who contend that the strike was first instigated by two well-known firms in Malaga, who are large dealers in staves, and who have large stocks on hand, but whose business is greatly injured by the constant arrival of these petroleum barrels. Again, there are others who fear that this movement of the coopers is an inauguration of future and more important domestic disturbance in Spain.

Wanted, American Ships.—**Consul Merton of Pernambuco, sends to the Department a lamentation as follows:**

I do not see that we are likely to increase our trade with Pernambuco, until we establish a line of American steamers. What is wanted will be steamers drawing not over 18 to 20 feet of water to enable them to enter this port. There should be a weekly line. One of them might have for a starting point New Orleans, the others New York. They should stop at St. Thomas if thought desirable, then at Para, Pernambuco, Bahia, and end the voyage at Rio de Janeiro. In order to get over the feeling our people have against subsidies, why could not this line be made a training school for the apprentices of our service, as also for the apprentices of the State school ships. The officers could also be taken from the Navy. The French and English have regular lines of steamers running to all these ports, and they have the best of the trade.

American Ships.—**Another monthly appeal for the American ensign abroad and consequent control of American commerce and freight in foreign markets comes this time from Consul Randall, of Sabanilla, who gives the following insight into the causes of the decadence of our merchant marine:**

One reason why the preponderance of trade is so much in favor of Europe is the facility of communication and the correspondingly low rate of freight. There are seven semi-monthly European lines of steamers, nearly, if not all, receiving a subsidy from their respective governments; and only one semi-monthly line of steamers to New York, and this is English, too. This line offers any inducement and goes to any length to secure European freight via New York, but is independent and arbitrary when American freight is offered. This brings me to a part of my report which is humiliating. I would gladly pass it over if consulting my own feelings.

By examining report No. 7, showing the tonnage of the port, you will observe that the decrease in the tonnage of American bottoms is 17,009 tons. This was owing to the decline of the cattle trade between this place and Cuba. If it was not for this traffic we would scarcely ever see our grand old flag at the mast head.

The carrying trade between this port and New York pays an annual tax of $200,000 freight to English ships built by English capital, employing English labor, working with English tools, consuming English coal and iron, and stocked with English stores. Including all the freight carried, the Atlas Company must receive an annual profit of nearly $720,000. It is well known that most of the new ships have been built from the profits earned by the few small steamers originally placed on the line. Capitalize this, and you see at a glance what a large trade is turned away from the American mechanic and tradesman by the failure of the government to be consistent. You

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compel the investor to purchase his ships in the country, but will not aid him to overcome the obstacles that you have imposed. Instead of robbing Peter to pay Paul, you are robbing your own children to pay a stranger. How can it be expected that an American line should be able to stand against this English company that has grown fat on the profits already received without some guarantee that in the end their enterprise will be rewarded. It is fallacy to suppose that an American line can succeed without a subsidy, when the English and French lines touching here are heavily supported by government aid. In addition, while this traffic is in the hands of the English, New York will be the only port interested, while government owes it to the West (an immense consumer of the tropical produce) to bring the port of New Orleans in steam communication with the Antilles. There is not an American traveling abroad but who feels deeply the loss of prestige, honor, and financial standing in the decline of American shipping, and although there may be a political hue and cry against the granting of subsidies, yet there is not an American so low but will rejoice when he can witness America carrying her produce in her own bottoms.

One American Ship!—Consul Willard, of Guaymas, shows the disposition of Mexicans to encourage an American merchantman:

The American steamer Newbern, continues to make her monthly trips with praiseworthy regularity. The mail subsidy of $2,000 per trip is punctually paid, and the owners have solicited the Mexican Government for a continuance of the subsidy, as the three years' contract for carrying the mail expires at the end of the year.

The Mexican steamer General Zaragoza, of the coast line between Manzanillo and Guaymas, calling at intermediate ports, has been laid up in Mazatlan for the last three months to receive a new engine and boiler (the hull being perfectly sound and good). The same company have also in course of construction in San Francisco a 500-ton steamer for the same service. Both these vessels will commence running regularly between the above-named points as soon as they are in readiness for service. These steamers receive a government subsidy of $1,500 per round trip for carrying the mails.

No Ships, no Insurance, no Banking—of American identity in foreign ports, to promote American interests.—Consul Randall, of Sabanilla, condenses the whole question of American carrying trade in the following concise report of the trouble in his consulate:

Barranquilla bears the same relation to Colombia as New York does to the United States. It is the main forwarding and shipping port of the country. If any money is required to move the produce, establish improvements, or aid the government, its merchants are called on, and liberally do they respond. With them business is very good and their credit is equal to any business center in the country, and, I might add, to any place in the United States with the same amount of capital invested. In view of this, why is it that I cannot find a representative of a single American fire, marine, or life insurance company, banking house or shipping agency? There is a large business in each of these lines, and honorable merchants to deal with, yet these companies, usually so enterprising in advancing their business relations, seem to have passed entirely over the field, and left European houses to reap the returns.

CONSULAR CHANGES

[From April 1 to April 21, 1881.]

CANADA.

Sault Ste. Marie.—John A. Colwell, agent.
Port Stanley and St. Thomas.—Philip Carroll, commercial agent.

GUATEMALA.

Guatemala City.—Frank H. Titus, acting consul.

PERU.

Lambayeque.—S. C. Montjoy, consul, exequatur withdrawn.

SPAIN.

San Sebastian and Pasages.— Josè M. de Brunet, agent.

VENEZUELA.

Barcelona.—Ignacio H. Baiz, agent.

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COMMERCIAL RELATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES.

REPORTS

FROM THE

CONSULS OF THE UNITED STATES

ON THE

COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, ETC.,

OF THEIR

CONSULAR DISTRICTS.

No. 7.—May, 1881.

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CONSULAR REPORTS

ON

COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, ETC.

MAY, 1881.

CONTINENT OF AFRICA.

EGYPTIAN PRODUCTION AND CONSUMPTION.

EXTRACT FROM THE ANNUAL REPORT FOR 1880 OF CONSUL-GENERAL FARMAN.

AGRICULTURE.

I have heretofore written very fully upon the agriculture, commerce, and finance of Egypt. It is my present purpose to make only a short report, embracing the statistics that I have been accustomed to send annually to the Department, and afterwards supplement it with commercial articles that will have a more general interest.

HARVEST OF 1880.

The condition of Egypt has not materially changed since the making of my last annual report. The harvests, though not so exceptionally good for the calendar year 1880 as for that of 1879, have been abundant, and two successive years of abundance have had the effect of restoring to the country its normal condition of prosperity. The agricultural classes are, at least apparently, more prosperous than at any time since its financial embarrassments brought the country to the verge of ruin. Not that they have added to their wealth or bettered the squalid condition in which they live. The mud hut is and will continue to be their home, and the fellah family is compelled to subsist for the whole year on food less in quantity and poorer in quality than that on which an American farmer would fatten the same number of swine, and their dwellings are of no more expense and have no more luxuries than the pens that are ordinarily provided for these animals. But they have for the last few months more easily obtained the money necessary to meet the government demands for taxes.

RELIEF IN TAXATION.

Several causes have combined to produce this result. I have already mentioned that of the two years of abundant harvests. The abolition

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of the law of the moukabalah also lessens for the present the burdens of the poorer class of taxpayers. I have heretofore fully explained this law, under which the larger portion of the fellah classes have been for nine years paying 50 per cent. additional taxes in order to be relieved at the end of twelve years from the payment of one-half of their ordinary land tax. The repeal of the law and the confirmation of the repeal by the commission of liquidation relieved them from this additional tax for the remaining three years, though at the sacrifice of substantially losing the $85,000,000 that had already been paid.

The law of liquidation also put a considerable amount of money in circulation. Under this law the Egyptian Government issued new bonds to the amount of about $42,000,000 for the purpose of obtaining the money necessary to pay the floating debt. From the 20th of July, 1880, the date of the promulgation of the law, to the 31st of January, 1881, $30,859,070 were paid on this debt in cash or in bonds at about their market value. A considerable portion of this money has been received by residents of the country, and has thus been put into general circulation.

For some years next preceding 1880 the exportation of specie from Egypt had exceeded the importation. For the first nine months of the year 1880 the importations of specie were $12,800,680 and the exportations were $1,941,160. For the corresponding nine months of the year 1879, the importations were $2,305,849, and the exportations $2,968,255.

BANKING OF EGYPT.

Two banks with large capital have also been organized in Egypt during the last year for the purpose of loaning money on bonds and mortgages, and have already done considerable business.

The result of these various financial operations of the government and the banks, together with the abundant harvests, has been to largely increase the circulating medium of the country. This has had its natural effects. Business has been to a certain extent revived. Property has very much advanced in value throughout the whole country, and the people of Cairo and Alexandria have been seized with a building mania. The fellahs are able to borrow money at a much less ruinous rate of interest than formerly, and there is a general appearance of revived prosperity.

AGRICULTURE.

Egypt is, however, a purely agricultural country and has no other sources of income than its raw products. The causes that have produced the present favorable financial condition are for the most part exceptional and cannot recur. Hereafter the only resources will be the produce of the soil, and the constant drain of produce or of money that will be required to be sent to Europe to pay the tribute, and the interest on the public debt, must necessarily absorb all the revenues of the country, and the agricultural classes will remain for the most part, as heretofore, practically in a state of serfdom.

LABOR IN EGYPT.

I have had occasion heretofore to speak of the exceptional amount of labor required in Egypt in consequence of its system of irrigation. The annual labor of cleaning its 8,400 miles of canals, and of renewing and repairing the necessary dikes along the banks of the river, and trans-

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versal dikes constructed to prevent damage at the time of the high water, is very great, to say nothing of the direct work of irrigation, much of which has to be done by raising the water by means of the nattâlah, a large leather basket-shaped bucket, swung on ropes and worked by two men, or the shadoof, resembling a short rude well-sweep, or by the sakiah, a rustic machine turned by a buffalo, cow, or camel, or, as is occasionally the case, by pumps worked by steam engines.

At this moment not less than 150,000 persons are engaged on the canals and dikes, and I am informed by the minister of public works that on an average at least this number is required for a period of six months each year to do the ordinary cleaning and repairing.*

Two short canals, the Mahmûdieh and the Khatatbeh, which supply the city of Alexandria and the small district of Beherah, require for their ordinary cleaning each year from 25,000 to 30,000 persons for a period of from forty to fifty days. The former of these canals was re-excavated by Mohammed Ali in 1819–'20, who employed in its construction 250,000 laborers for about one year, of whom 20,000 are said to have perished with sickness and hunger.

All the labor for cleaning the canals and repairing the dikes is obtained by what is known as the *corrée*, a system of forced labor. The inhabitants of the fellah class are taken in mass from their villages and compelled to work forty-five days, or more, if required, under overseers and without remuneration. They even furnish their own means of subsistence. They live on the coarsest and poorest food, and sleep on the ground, rolling themselves up in their zaabout, a kind of overshirt, if they are fortunate enough to possess one. During the day the line of the works swarms with busy human beings, and at night the ground is covered with their sleeping forms.

TOIL OF WOMEN.

It is not the male population alone that is engaged. Women and all the boys and girls, down to the age of eight and nine years, are seen carrying baskets of earth on their heads, while the village sheikh stands with his whip ready to chastise the indolent or rebellious. The law mentions only the male inhabitants between fifteen and fifty years of age as subject to the *corrée*, but practically this only serves as a basis for the division of the work according to the estimated amount of cubic meters of earth to be removed. When this division is once made and certain sections of a canal allotted to one or more of the peasant villages, the whole mass of their inhabitants are put to work by the sheikhs in order that they may be kept from their homes and the working of their lands the shortest time possible.

CANALS.

The canals that are dry are cleaned by taking out the accumulation of deposit in baskets carried for the most part on the heads of women and children. In many places there is considerable water and a very thick mud-deposit, and this is removed by a man standing in the water and working out with his hand pieces as large as he can conveniently raise, which he tosses to his neighbor standing nearer to or on the side of the bank, whence they are sometimes passed to a third or even fourth

*According to the best information I can obtain this estimate is too small. The number is at least 200,000, or an average of 100,000 working the whole year.

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person, until they are removed to a sufficient distance. The mud is often left on the bank to dry and afterwards removed in baskets.

The people are always driven to and kept at their work either by or under the fear of the whip. The climate is fortunately mild, but during the winter season the nights are damp and cold, and the laborers on the public works suffer considerably. The hardships of the *corvée*, as can easily be seen, are very great and have been for a long time the subject of much comment.

THE PRESENT KHEDIVE.

Ismail Pasha at the commencement of his reign proclaimed his intention to abolish the system of the *corvée*, and the fact that he failed to do so was later made a cause of accusation against him by those who sought and finally succeeded in effecting his dethronement.

Last year a partial attempt was made in certain localities to lessen the rigor of the *corvée* by permitting certain classes to purchase their exemption, the government undertaking to procure laborers to fill their places by voluntary contract. The results were very unsatisfactory, and on the 24th of last month the Khedive issued a decree by which the right of purchasing exemption was abolished.

As much as this system is to be regretted, I am obliged to say that in my opinion, based on my knowledge of the country and the people, and the amount and kind of labor required, the canals and dikes cannot be kept in proper condition without recourse to some kind of forced labor. The canals are the source of life to the whole country. Without them a considerable portion of the lands would soon become barren deserts, and their maintenance is absolutely indispensable.

Great as is the labor required each year to keep them in proper condition, when this is done the real work of irrigation has just commenced. The canals only conduct the water to or into the vicinity of the lands to be watered. It then has to be taken in small canals, often to a considerable distance, and distributed upon the land as it is needed, and as the surface of the water in the canals is frequently below the level of the adjoining lands, the water has to be raised in the manner I have indicated. In my report for the year 1877 I gave some estimates of the labor required in irrigation, and it is not necessary to again return to that subject.

Notwithstanding the great fertility of the lands of the valley of the Nile and the Delta, the conditions which nature has attached to them and the financial burdens of the government are such as to make it very improbable that there can be any special immediate amelioration of the situation of the agricultural classes, with whose mud villages the country is thickly dotted.

PRODUCTS.

I gave with my report of last year a tabular statement of the lands cultivated by the Daïra Saniah and the kind and quantity per acre of the various crops produced for four successive years, as affording the best and most accurate information obtainable as to the gross products of the lands of Egypt. I now continue that statement for another year in so far as I can obtain the required information, and I also give a tabular statement showing the amount of lands cultivated by the administration of the Domain and their products for the year 1879. The Domain lands are those mortgaged to secure the Rothschild loan.

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Crops of the Daïra Saniah lands in the year 1879.

Description.	Number of acres cultivated.	Quantity of produce.	Sugar.	
			Weight.	Value in United States gold.
Sugar-cane ..... pounds..	29,861	835,426,700	.....	.....
Sugar No. 1 ..... do....	.....	.....	51,145,400	$2,309,010
Sugar No. 2 ..... do....	.....	.....	14,104,300	425,965
Sugar No. 3 ..... do....	.....	.....	4,224,600	104,715
Wheat ..... bushels..	18,194	165,806	.....	.....
Foul (Egyptian beans) ..... do....	18,985	260,548	.....	.....
Barley ..... do....	10,658	82,600	.....	.....
Sundry cereals ..... do....	7,456	61,175	.....	.....
Cotton ..... pounds..	3,812	82,100	.....	.....
Bersim (kind of clover, fed to stock)	12,926	.....	.....	.....
Total	101,892	.....	69,474,300	2,839,690

Lands of the Daïra Saniah cultivated in 1879.

	Acres.
Total number of acres of crops as given above	101,892
Lands cultivable and reserved for sowing	6,583
Lands in preparation for planting cane next year	38,962
Total cultivable lands not leased	147,437
Leased lands (annual rental, $1,361,410)	179,033
Total cultivable lands (acres or feddâns)	326,470
Lands not cultivable (worthless, or not reached by the water of canals or Nile)	178,628
Total lands (acres or feddâns)	505,098

It appears that the average crops of the Daïra Saniah for the year 1879 were even less than in 1878. The products per acre were as follows: Wheat, 9.07 bushels; barley, 7.71 bushels; horse-beans, 13.65 bushels; and cotton, 214.83 pounds. The Domain lands, however, as will be hereafter seen, gave a greater yield.

It is impossible to ascertain the exact products of the Daïra for the year's crops or the expenses. The value of the sugar is given in their statements at $2,839,690, but the actual proceeds of the sales of sugar made from cane grown on lands worked by the Daïra was $2,699,200. This administration, however, sold molasses to the amount of $47,265, and alcohol made from the produce of cane to the amount of $165,555. As near as can be ascertained the expenses were $3,259,850, and the taxes $633,500; a total of $3,893,350.

The sum necessary to pay the annual interest was $2,145,014.49. It is admitted that the net proceeds of the lands were not sufficient to meet this sum. But claims were made against the Egytian Government by the administration of the Daïra for moneys paid on certain judgments, which were liens on some of the lands, and amounted to about $500,000, and for the non-execution in certain particulars of the contract of the government made with the holders of the Daïra bonds. In the settlement of all these claims the commission of liquidation allowed to the Daïra $2,250,000. This sum enabled the administration to settle their arrears and purchase for cancellation £100,000 nominal of its bonds.

The effect of the repeal of the law of the moukabalah was to increase

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the annual taxes on the Daïra lands in the sum of $465,000; so that the deficit for 1880 would have been large had not the interest been reduced to 4 per cent. This amount, the 4 per cent., is, however, by the law of liquidation guaranteed by the Egyptian Government.

The increase of the Daïra Saniah bonds in the amount of £697,440, as will appear in the statement of the public debt, was for the purpose of satisfying certain claims against the Daïra Kassa, which was consolidated with the Daïra Saniah, as stated in my report for 1878. While these new bonds are issued by and in the name of the Daïra Saniah, the government is bound to provide the money semi-annually to pay the interest thereon.

Receipts from the Domain lands during the year 1879.

Source of receipts.	Surface cultivated.	Produce per acre.	Total quantity of produce.	Value of produce in U.S. gold.
I.—The Nile Crop.	*Acres.*			
Durrah (Egyptian corn) ardabbs	1,849	3.64	6,741.00	$20,244
Sabini rice quintals	726	20.32	11,217.83	12,308
II.—The Winter Crop.				
Wheat ardabbs	29,374	2.98	87,076.19	474,493
Barley do	30,436	2.21	58,651.17	165,512
Foul (horse-beans) do	28,034	3.04	87,954.17	378,042
Pease do	1,071	3.29	3,534.13	14,494
Fenugreek do	7,577	1.37	10,436.22	56,021
Bersim (Egyptian clover)	26,192	.....	.....	46,271
Hemp	843	.....	.....	26,214
Hummus (Egyptian pease) ardabbs	834	2.46	2,051.18	11,590
Lentils do	247	2.95	730.06	3,803
Lupin do	308	1.26	389.14	1,078
Straw	.....	.....	.....	100,474
Sundries	.....	.....	.....	7,084
III.—The Summer Crop.				
Cotton quintals	52,365	3.51	172,418.23	2,338,239
Cotton seed ardabbs	.....	.....	129,787.17	476,668
Sugar cane	74	.....	.....	1,821
Rice quintals	10,812	12.74	83,526.16	112,927
Sesamum ardabbs	189	1.52	287.17	3,605
Durrah (Egyptian corn)	685	.....	.....	14,406
Tobacco	4	.....	.....	851
Stalks of cotton plant	.....	.....	.....	59,402
Sundries	104	.....	.....	1,719
IV.—Rents.				
Leases of land	127,872	.....	.....	785,728
Concessions to laborers	35,869	.....	.....	271,971
Lands leased for a special cultivation	5,877	.....	.....	66,982
Pastures	.....	.....	.....	9,512
Rents of material	.....	.....	.....	1,437
Rents of houses	.....	.....	.....	4,097
Sundry rents	.....	.....	.....	4,211
V. Products of orchards and gardens	577	.....	.....	14,745
VI. Products of trees	.....	.....	.....	5,104
VII. Receipts for cattle	.....	.....	.....	46,453
VIII. Sundry receipts and products	.....	.....	.....	95,230
IX. Buildings at Cairo and Alexandria	.....	.....	.....	175,828
X. Exchange account	.....	.....	.....	6,589
XI. Sale of lands and buildings	.....	.....	.....	1,786
XII. Collected on Dairas' account	.....	.....	.....	5,408
Total	302,819	.....	.....	5,823,047

NOTE.—A quintal equals 99 pounds; an ardabb, 5$\frac{1}{8}$ Winchester bushels.

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Note to table of receipts from Domain lands in 1879.

	Acres.
Total surface cultivated	362,819
Deduct double crop on feddâns	15,239
Actual number of feddâns cultivated	347,580
Lands not cultivable	78,412
Total number of acres of Domain lands	425,992
Gross receipts therefrom in the year 1879	$5,823,047
General expenses of administration and cultivation during year 1879	$2,222,781
Taxes paid	876,826
Total expenses for year	3,099,607
Required for yearly interest on the Rothschild loan	2,068,262
Gross yearly outlay, including interest	5,167,869
Surplus	655,178

There is, according to the statement, a surplus after paying the annual interest of the Rothschild loan, but it is well known that this surplus is apparent rather than real, and that the actual net proceeds of the lands have not thus far been sufficient to pay the taxes and the interest.

When the decree appeared abolishing the law of the moukabalah, the Rothschilds refused to pay over the balance of the proceeds of the loan then in their hands until other securities were given them. The result was that while they consented to the increase of their taxes in an amount of about $500,000, this was not to be paid until their coupons were provided for, and they had also pledged to them, as a further guaranty, the revenues of the province of Kenah, which contains 283,842 acres of cultivable land, on which the annual tax is $1,478,805. The whole revenues of the province are in excesss of this sum.

It will be seen that the interest is amply secured, and that the increase of the taxes caused by the repeal of the law of the moukabalah, so far as relates to lands mortgaged to secure this loan, is only nominal and cannot injuriously affect the bondholders. In case of a low Nile or bad crops from any other cause, full provision has been made for their coupons. On the occurrence of any such event it will be the people of Egypt who are to suffer, and not the Parisian or London bankers.

The products of the Domain lands per acre for 1879 were, of wheat, 15.02 bushels; barley, 11.13; horse-beans, 15.32; and cotton, 347.47 pounds. Double crops seem to have been produced only on 25,239 acres out of 347,580 acres cultivated.

There are, as I stated in my report of last year (1879), no such fabulous productions in Egypt as have been claimed. The Daïra Saniah, instead of having double crops, had actually only 101,892 acres of crops on its 147,437 acres of cultivable and unleased lands, the balance being in preparation for the following year. The products are certainly very large in comparison with the actual area of the lands. This arises from the fact that they are all cultivated. There are no pasture lands in the sense that the word pasture is used in the United States. There is nothing raised but what is the result of annual sowing and planting. There is no grass; in fact it will not grow here to any extent. The substitute for it is bersim, a kind of clover, which has to be sown every year the same as wheat or barley. The cattle are to a considerable ex-

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tent staked out and allowed to feed upon it as it grows, and in that case it springs up again and gives a second and sometimes a third feeding.

COMMERCE.

According to information obtained from the custom-house department, the value of the exports for all the ports of Egypt for the year ending August 31, 1880, was $63,775,237, and that of the imports $31,884,378. The value of the exports for the previous corresponding year was $62,072,035, and that of the imports $30,044,454.

It will be seen that there was a slight increase of both exports and imports for the year 1880. It should be remembered that the exports for the year ending August 31, 1880, are mostly the products resulting from the rise of the Nile of the previous year, consisting principally of the cotton and cotton-seed gathered in the fall of 1879, and the sugar of the fall and winter of 1879–'80, and the wheat and beans harvested in the following spring.

The imports from the United States are, as heretofore, small; being in value, according to the custom-house entries, only $362,650. The exports to the United States, according to the same source of information, amounted to $99,610.

These figures do not, however, give even an approximatively true statement of our commerce with Egypt, as the consular invoices for the four quarters ending the 30th September, 1880, show that the exports from Egypt to the United States were nearly six times the amount stated, as follows:

Exports to the United States for the four quarters ending September 30, 1880.

From Cairo:	
Gum arabic	$123,637 05
Skins and hides	166,097 05
Civet horns	3,078 00
Senna	9,712 88
Coffee	5,167 00
Carpets and rugs	1,506 00
Musk	1,389 00
Ostrich feathers	4,394 00
Curiosities	1,668 00
Total from Cairo	316,648 98
From Alexandria:	
Rags	$146,077 36
Cotton	89,425 00
Hides	23,869 00
Iron (old scrap)	2,945 64
Grass ropes	2,740 00
Furniture	474 08
Copper (old)	341 00
Coffee	278 00
Antiquities	245 92
Effects	203 00
Gum	34 00
Senna	13 00
Total from Alexandria	266,646 00
Total from Egypt:	
From Cairo	316,648 98
From Alexandria	266,646 00
Total from Egypt	583,294 98

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The invoiced exports to the United States for the last three years were as follows:

1878	$233,377 50
1879	361,019 99
1880	583,294 98

These are small amounts, but they show a rapid increase, and I have no doubt, from the American goods seen in the market, of there being a corresponding increase in our exportations to Egypt, but they are brought in foreign vessels and to a large extent through foreign merchants and entered as coming from the country from which the vessel bringing them sailed, and there are no means of ascertaining the facts as to their amounts. England undoubtedly has the credit and makes a profit on a considerable portion of the American products that are sold in Egpyt, but the real amount of our goods which reach this country is small, much smaller than it ought to be.

SHIPPING.

The error in relation to exports from Egypt to the United States arises in a similar manner. The goods are shipped via England in English vessels, and are entered on the books of the Egyptian custom-house as shipped for that country. There are also many articles, such as gums, ostrich feathers, and senna, that are first sold and shipped to European merchants and then resold and sent to the United States. This state of things would not exist if there were a direct steam communication between Egypt and our country.

The same conditions exist in relation to our commerce in most of the countries bordering on the Mediterranean Sea, and the advantages of a direct line of communication between them and the United States must be apparent to every one who has examined the subject, not only as regards our prestige as a nation and the interests of our commerce, but more particularly as affecting the continued prosperity of our manufactures.

NO AMERICAN SHIPS.

It is humiliating for a nation of such wealth, power, extent of territory, and natural commercial advantages as the United States to be driven from the seas by the successful competition of other nations, who take the same pride and interest in protecting and fostering their commerce that we do in protecting and encouraging our home industries.

It is seldom that the American flag is seen in the Orient. Occasionally one of our war-vessels, in making its circuit of the Mediterranean ports, calls at Alexandria, and for a few days the stars and stripes are seen floating amid the forest of masts that are always in the harbor, and our neatly dressed officers and sailors on their promenades in the streets of the city attract the attention of the public; but this does not aid our commerce. English, French, Italian, Austrian, and Russian merchant steamers come and go almost daily, and the United States has not a single representative among them.

It does not seem that this state of things is either desirable or necessary, but it will undoubtedly continue until some decided action is taken by the Government of the United States to promote and protect its commerce. Commerce needs aid and protection as much as manufacturing interests, and it is the manufacturer that should be the first to demand for it such action as would enable it to successfully compete with that of foreign nations; for commerce in all ages the mother of national

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wealth, has in modern times been the greatest auxiliary of the producer, whether of mechanical or agricultural products.

Without merchant ships of our own for the direct transportation of our goods our manufactures cannot be successfully extended beyond what is necessary to supply the demands of our own country. It will only be when we can ship our products in our own vessels directly to all parts of the world that we shall be able to sell that amount of goods that our skill and the cheapness and abundance of our material give us a reasonable right to expect.

FREIGHT ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES.

Freights by circuitous routes, with the changes now made from one ship to another, are not only too high, but the time required for this indirect transportation is too great to enable us to successfully compete with Europe in the Orient. I have several times succeeded in getting importers in Egypt in communication with our manufacturers for the purpose of having them try our goods, but the experiment has generally had little succes. It was not because our goods of the same class and quality were not cheaper than those imported from Europe, but because of the time and cost of transportation, our different manner of doing business as regards credits, and the want of adaptation of our goods to this market. As an instance, a gentleman of my acquaintance sent to the interior of New York for a quantity of glassware, which was packed in barrels and sent him. It arrived in good condition, but the freights amounted to four-fifths as much as the first cost. The glass was good and still cheap enough to sell at a fair advance, but it was not of the style of that which comes from Europe and is in use here, and therefore could not be sold to advantage. It is the same with cotton cloths.

"STYLES" IN EGYPT.

The English adopt styles and manufacture goods expressly to suit the requirements of the different countries to which they send them. They export to Egypt and other parts of the Orient, for sale to the natives, a very poor article of cotton cloth filled with starch. But it is of a fixed width, different from ours, and has a red stripe on the ends. It is sold by the piece, the pieces being of a fixed length. A merchant said to a friend of mine a few days since that, however good the cloth might be, unless it had the red stripe on the ends and was of a certain width and the pieces of a fixed length, it was of no value to him; his customers would not buy it. Of course his trade was with a certain class of natives. The Europeans living in Egypt would require different goods, but they number less than a hundred thousand, and each nationality brings the habits and customs of its own nation, and will, to a great extent, always derive supplies from the parent country. Still, with proper management, many more American goods could be sold in the Orient both to Europeans and natives.

European mercantile houses have agents who reside here or are sent out from time to time to make the circuit of the eastern cities and learn the wants of the native merchants and supply them so far as is possible.

SUGGESTIONS TO MANUFACTURERS.

To state the case in a few words, I give it as my opinion, based upon the observations of nearly five years residence in Egypt, that until our goods are manufactured in a style to suit the habits and wants of the people, and there are reliable and capable agents sent out to sell them,

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and communications established for their direct shipment, we cannot expect any considerable increase of our commerce in the Orient.

During the year 1880 seventeen steamers left Port Said direct for New York loaded with tea, fifteen of which were English, one German, and one Danish. If these steamers had belonged to our own merchant marine, and had taken out our own goods to the various countries of the East, they could not but have been beneficial to our commercial interests, and they might, under proper management, have opened the way for an extensive commerce in the future.

Condensed statement of navigation and commerce with the United States at Port Said during the year 1880.

Number of vessels.	Where from.	Where for.	Flag.	Kind of cargo.	Tonnage.	
					Gross.	Net.
					Tons.	*Tons.*
15 steamers	China	New York	British	Tea	29,890	19,622
1 steamer	do	do	German	do	1,624	1,147
1 steamer	do	do	Danish	do	1,527	976
2 sailing-vessels	New York	Port Said	Italian	Petroleum*	.....	.....
Total	.....	.....	.....	.....	33,041	21,745

* 21,000 cases, or 210,000 gallons, whereof 17,000 cases, or 170,000 gallons, were transshipped via Suez Canal to the different ports of the Red Sea.

Arrival and departure of vessels at the port of Alexandria from September 1, 1879, *to Augus* 31, 1880.

Flag.	Arrivals.	Departures.
SAILING VESSELS.		
British	356	319
American	None	None.
Austrian	97	85
German	26	19
Belgian	2	2
Danish	5	4
Egyptian	39	28
French	48	43
Greek	124	112
Ottoman (Greek)	276	243
Dutch	2	2
Italian	131	102
Swedish and Norwegian	50	47
Russian	41	36
Ottoman (Turkish)	528	503
Wallachian	8	6
Total sailing vessels	1,733	1,551
STEAMERS.		
British	334	346
Austrian	113	110
American	None	None.
Belgian	1	1
Egyptian	132	129
French	149	147
Italian	84	82
Russian	25	25
Ottoman	2	2
Dutch	1	1
Total steamers	861	843

E. FARMAN,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Cairo, February, 1881.

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CONTINENT OF AMERICA.

INDUSTRIAL PROGRESS IN MEXICO.

REPORT BY CONSUL GENERAL STROTHER.

I have the honor to transmit herewith a translation of the address delivered by President Gonzales on the occasion of the assembling of the Mexican Congress, April 1, 1881. I also inclose a printed copy of a translation of the "Mexican law of colonization," which is referred to in the President's address, and which it is proposed to modify and amend.

I may add that all my consular letters, private advices, and personal observations tend to confirm the flattering picture which President Gonzales gives of the present tranquillity and hopeful future of the Mexican Republic.

DAVID H. STROTHER,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Mexico, April 4, 1881.

ADDRESS OF THE PRESIDENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF MEXICO.

PRESENT CONDITION AND FUTURE PROSPECTS.

GENTLEMEN DEPUTIES AND SENATORS: To-day we inaugurate the second term of your sessions, which I am happy to say commences under the most favorable circumstances and amidst the most flattering prospects.

There is no portion of our national domain whose inhabitants are not at this time in the enjoyment of peace, and if, as there seems to be every reason to hope, the good sense of the Mexican people shall continue to develop and strengthen in this direction, at no distant day perhaps we, the people of the New World, changing characters and ceasing to be actors, may become the tranquil spectators of the social and political convulsions of Europe.

All our international relations are of the most satisfactory character.

During the month of November last a person charged with crimes against the civil law and committed within Mexican territory, was delivered by William Perkins, governor of California, on the requisition of the political chief of Lower California, to our consul in San Francisco, and being at his disposal in the public jail, was taken out by the local authorities and has not yet been returned. If this disagreeable affair should fail to terminate in a satisfactory manner it will demonstrate the futility of the extradition treaty now existing between Mexico and the United States, and will furnish a precedent to be noted by the Mexican Government in any future action.

Certain localities on our northern border have recently been the theater of predatory incursions by banditti, crossing over from North American territory to commit robberies and outrages on Mexican soil. Meanwhile the proper authorities have adopted measures to secure the safety of the disturbed districts; and instructions have been sent to our representative in Washington to advise the Department of State that the highest interests of both governments require that these crimes, so prejudicial to the growing commerce and friendly relations of the two countries should be promptly repressed.

The territory of the State of Chiapas has likewise been subject to aggressions by persons coming from the neighboring Republic of Gautemala. As the present administration is resolved that such invasions shall cease, measures have already been adopted to that end and others are in contemplation, which it is hoped will be sufficient to secure the desired result without necessity for any special legislation on this subject.

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With the exceptions mentioned our relations with all foreign countries have at no time within the last twenty-five years been on so broad and friendly a footing as at the present time.

The negotiations to arrange a treaty of extradition with Spain have been satisfactorily concluded, and at the proper time the result will be submitted to the consideration of the Senate.

The secretary of state will lay before Congress the project of a law for the extradition of criminals, in harmony both with the letter and spirit of our constitution and intended to serve as a rule for the fulfillment of all such treaties as may be now in force and as a basis for such as may be hereafter concluded. I commend this important project to your careful and intelligent consideration.

The transfer of political power occurring in all the States at the same time with that of the federal government, in other times the occasion or pretext of so many disorders and revolutionary movements, has recently been accomplished in the midst of universal order and tranquillity.

There arose some difficulties in the State of Coahuila, which nevertheless have been peacefully settled without the intervention of federal authority. The outgoing governor having refused to recognize the legislature just installed, was tried and deposed, and a successor *ad interim* appointed by the legislature, who held the office until the new governor elect was ready to take his seat. He having since entered upon his duties, the state government goes on with its accustomed regularity.

The prevailing quiet affords the federal executive the opportunity to devote his whole attention to administrative questions.

The minister of "gobernation" manifests the greatest interest in the erection of a penitentiary for the federal district, and if the representatives of the people see fit to approve a proposition made to Congress during its former session in regard to the establishment of a single lottery whose profits shall be divided between public charities and the erection of a penitentiary they will facilitate the realization of a noble thought and one of the promises of our constitution.

It may be remarked at the same time that the drawings of the so-called "Toluca Railway" lottery are conducted under the direction and supervision of the government; and the products already deposited in the National "Monte de Piedad" amount to $70,000.

The same department, with the view of enlarging and regulating our facilities of intercourse, both external and internal, hold under advisement various proposals of contracts with steamship companies, having already concluded a contract with parties in Tabasco for regular lines of communication between the gulf ports and in the interest of the coasting trade.

The duties of the postal agents attached to the lines already subsidized, have been so regulated as to make the introduction of contraband goods more difficult than it has heretofore been on those vessels.

A number of new post-offices have been established and others suppressed, according to the presumed requirements of public convenience.

And finally, being profoundly impressed with the importance of the municipality among all civilized peoples, and especially those governed by democratic institutions, the minister of state has occupied himself in preparing a "municipal code" adequate to the necessities and in conformity with the ideas of the age, and at the same time giving a proper organization to the common councils of the cities of the federal district as well as of Lower California. A digest of these laws and plans of organization will shortly be presented, the results of the labors of an especial commission appointed for the purpose.

The minister of justice and public instruction, having heard frequent complaints touching irregularities in the administration of justice in the federal district, has taken such steps for the correction of abuses as the subject seemed to demand; but it is yet too early to hazard an opinion as to their efficiency. He has in addition prepared with much care a new course of studies for the schools, which will be submitted to your consideration probably during the present session.

I do not doubt that you will hear with especial interest the report of the department of public works, as the subject of internal improvements and their decisive influence on the future prosperity of the country is now the absorbing idea of the Mexican people as well as of its rulers.

On the 10th of March last the submarine cable was completed connecting the ports of Vera Cruz and Tampico with Brownsville in Texas, thus putting our republic in direct telegraphic communication with the rest of the civilized world. Within the present month a telegraphic line between Sinavla and Guadalupe de los Reyes will be finished, and that uniting Culiacan with Alamos commenced. A branch line from Cuencamie to Villa Lerdo in Durango is finished, and the line from Caxaca to Tehuantepec prolonged to Iuchatan to unite with that from the State of Chiapas, which has already reached Truxtla Guttierez. Contracts have been made for the construction of a line from Tacotalpa to San Christobal, which will unite Tabasco and Chiapas; and the

necessary materials have already been ordered from abroad to construct a line which is to unite Yucatan and Campeachy with Tabasco, and, eventually, with Vera Cruz. Several important lines will also be commenced very shortly in the frontier States of the north.

The Morelos Railroad Company has constructed now about 63 miles of track and will be extended to Cuantla in a short time. The government has accepted 2½ miles of the branch which is to unite this road with that from Mexico City to Vera Cruz.

The State government of Guerrero has transferred to a company the concession of a railroad from Acapulco to this capital, and in the month of May next the work will be commenced in Acapulco.

The different lines which are to unite Vera Cruz and Jalapa, Jalapa and San Andres, Puebla and San Marcos, are also in course of construction. The Vera Cruz and Alvarado Company have also completed 7½ miles of track. The line from Mérida to Progreso in Yucatan is about being finished; of the line from Mérida to Peto, the government has accepted about 9 miles; and work has been begun on the other line which is to connect that capital with Calkini. The railroad of Hidalgo has in operation about 17 miles, and that leading from Puebla to Izricar has a branch extending to Cholula.

Work is actively progressing on the line from Puebla to San Martin Texmelucan, as well as on the projected line from Matamoras to Monterey.

The Central Railroad Company has laid its track nearly to Tula, widened the track from Celaya to Irapuato, and is pushing the work of reconnoitering and surveying on the lines from San Luis Potosi to Tampico, and from Chilmalma to Paso del Norte.

The Mexican Construction Company is making its embankments from this city to Toluca, and has commenced the construction of the line of Pátzcuaro, Morelia, and Salamanca, as likewise that from Zacatecas to San Luis Potosi; all of which privileges it has obtained by transfer. The same company has exhibited its plans for over 30 miles of the route from Manzanillo to the interior, and has actually commenced reconnoitering the route from Nuevo Laredo to Monterey.

Twelve and a half miles of completed track, constructed by the Sonora Company, and beginning at Guaymas, have been accepted; and, according to official information now in possession of the Executive, the road will have reached Hermosillo before the rainy season commences.

The Tehuantepec Company, taking advantage of the dry season, has pushed its work with energy, drawing their laborers from the "Tierra Templada," and pushing their reconnoitering parties southward across the isthmus for the purpose of ascertaining the most convenient terminus on the Pacific.

The Executive submits to the enlightened consideration of Congress the contract which he has entered into with Mr. James B. Eads for the construction of a ship railway across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec.

At some convenient time during the present session certain plans of reform suggested by the department of public works will be laid before Congress. One of these will have for its object the improvement of our copper coinage. If approved, it will, in his judgment, satisfy a present public necessity and be an important step toward that general reformation so much needed by our present currency.

Another has reference to patents of invention or improvement, and proposes to shorten and simplify the proceedings at present required to obtain a privilege.

A third, to which the administration attaches great importance, proposes a reformation of the laws of colonization to the extent of offering to colonists only such advantages as we can actually and in good faith secure to them without omitting any of the privileges or exemptions; which may serve to attract strangers to our republic.

It is with peculiar satisfaction that I feel justified in announcing to Congress the favorable condition to the public treasury, and the fact that it is evidently and progressively improving. From official data we are assured that during the first six months of the present fiscal year the federal income, when compared with six months of the preceding year, exhibits an increase of more than $400,000. It may be safely presumed that the second half year will show a proportionate increase, and in this case the total public income will reach $21,000,000 per annum, while in former years, with the exception of the last, it fluctuated between $17,000,000 and $19,000,000.

This favorable condition has enabled us not only to meet the fifth installment of the American debt promptly, but also to redeem all standing promises to pay punctually the civil and military lists and other current expenses of the administration.

The state of the treasury, it is to be hoped, may be still further improved by the labors of the various commissions which have been appointed for the purpose of suggesting a plan of assessment in the federal district—of amending as far as possible the tariff now in force, and consulting generally as to the easiest method of augmenting the public revenues and regulating the collection of the federal taxes.

The estimates of receipts and expenditures of the treasury for the incoming fiscal year were laid before Congress on the day designated by the constitution; and I can assure you that not only the Executive but the whole country will view with appro-

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bation the prompt and zealous action of both chambers in giving this budget that timely attention which our fundamental law requires for it, without proposing to interfere with other important business.

Turning finally to the department of war I am sorry to inform Congress that neither the death of the Indian Victorio nor the destruction of his band has had the effect of putting a stop to the incursions of the barbarians on our northern frontiers. Repeated and devastating raids have occurred since, and the Executive, giving them the attention they demand, has organized a new campaign against the Indians, under the direction of the general-in-chief of the northern division.

The near approach of the American railroads to this left bank of the Rio Bravo del Norte will doubtless throw upon our frontier settlements numbers of the desperate and unscrupulous characters from the confines of our neighboring republic. Persons of this class have already provoked serious disorders. To prevent such occurrences in the future, and at the same time to protect the fiscal interests of the country, sufficient forces have been stationed at El Paso and Presidio del Norte. A respectable force has also been stationed in Chiapas to overawe or suppress any uprising of the natives as well as to provide for other emergencies.

Our infant navy has been increased by the addition of one vessel, bearing the honored name of Benito Juarez and attached to the Pacific service.

Gentlemen Deputies and gentlemen Senators, I again offer you my sincere congratulations on your assembling for the resumption of your important legislative labors. Accept them in the name of that peace and prosperity which our common country now enjoys; accept them for the sake of the high resolve now exhibited by the Mexican people to repair, by their abnegation, cordiality, and energy, the previous years that have been wasted in strifes and agitations, not only sterile, but destructive and disastrous in their results.

THE MEXICAN COLONIZATION LAW.

[Reprinted from The Two Republics, June 23, 1875.]

The following is the colonization law passed by the Mexican Congress on the 31st of May, 1875:

ARTICLE 1. The Executive is authorized to issue a decree to definitely determine and arrange everything relative to colonization, to effect this either by direct action or by contracts with private companies, upon the following bases:

I. To allow to companies a subvention for each family established in the country, or a smaller one for each family landed at any port; to make advances of amounts not exceeding 50 per cent. of the subvention; to sell lands susceptible of colonization upon long terms and at moderate prices, payable in annual installments, subsequent to the land having been measured, surveyed, and appraised; a bonus to each emigrant family; exemption from port duties of all vessels bringing to the republic ten or more families of such character; a bonus for each native family settled in the emigrant colonies; a bonus for each Mexican family settled in the frontier colonies.

II. To exact from the companies sufficient guarantees for the fulfillment of their contracts, without omitting to designate the cases of forfeiture and the respective fines; security that the colonists will enjoy, in so far as depends upon the contractors, all the privileges conceded by this law.

III. To grant to the colonists Mexican naturalization and citizenship when naturalized; advances on the expense of transportation and subsistence for one year after their establishment, upon industrial implements, and upon materials for the construction of their habitations; the proprietorship by sale and at low prices, payable upon long terms and in monthly installments, which payments will commence after the second year of their establishment, of a stipulated extent of land for cultivation and a homestead; exemption from military service and all taxes, except municipal taxes; from the payment of all importation duties and interior taxes on provisions, industrial implements, tools, machinery, fixtures, material for the construction of habitations, furniture for use, and animals for work or breeding, destined for the colonies; and also personal and untransferable exemption from the export duties on fruits which they gather; free correspondence with their native country or former residence through the department of foreign affairs, or by means of special seals; a premium on and special protection for the introduction of any new agricultural product or industry.

IV. To exact of the colonist the fulfillment of their contracts, in conformity with the common laws.

V. To appoint and put in motion the exploring commissions authorized by section 26 of the estimate in force, for obtaining land susceptible of colonization, with the requisite measurement, surveys, appraisement, and description.

VI. To furnish public lands with the requisites demanded by the foregoing section, and whoever shall fill these requisites shall be entitled to the third part of these lands, or the value of the same, whenever acting with due authority.

VII. This is the only authority of the Executive, who cannot deny it to a State which demands it concerning lands situated in its territory, the authorization which may be granted to States and individuals remaining without effect and without the right of prorogue when at the end of three months after such grant the necessary operations have not commenced.

VIII. To acquire, in convenient cases, lands for colonization from individuals, by purchase, by cession, or by whatever other contract in conformity with the rules established for public lands in section VI.

IX. To furnish for the lands of individuals, at their solicitation, the colonists that can be disposed of in virtue of contracts of emigration that may have been made.

X. To consider the colonists in this character, and with all their prerogatives, during ten years, at the termination of which period all privileges will cease.

ART. 2. The Executive is also authorized to disburse during the next fiscal year when this law is regulated the sum of $250,000 for the expenses demanded by this law, including the exploring commissions.

CUSTOMS-REVENUE SYSTEM OF BRAZIL.

REPORT BY CONSUL PRINDLE, OF PARA.

A pamphlet containing addresses of some New York merchants, before the Committee of Ways and Means, advocating certain changes in our customs-revenue system, having been sent to this office, I very respectfully beg to say that it appears to me the custom-house appraisers, named in one of the addresses, in giving their opinions that consular verifications of invoice are utterly worthless, have overlooked the fact that there is a shipper's declaration attached to the invoice and verification, and therefore, if, on examination of the goods at the port of entry, it shall appear that there is undervaluation, or that the invoice is incorrect in any other particular, whereby it is evident that there is design to defraud the revenue, the shipper has placed himself, over his signature, in a position from which he cannot extricate himself without paying the penalty. And, in a consular experience of nearly fourteen years, I feel satisfied that an appreciation of this fact operates decidedly to check attempt on the revenue. It is hardly possible that a consul could inform himself positively of the correctness of an invoice, but he, it seems to me, works in conjunction with the appraiser at home. The consul holds the shipper, so to speak, while the appraiser examines the goods.

Perhaps the shipper's declaration might be improved, if to it were added a clause to the effect that the party signing it acknowledge himself to be aware of the penalties attaching to an attempt to defraud the government.

The system advocated by the above-named gentlemen in some respects appears to resemble the Brazilian tariff, home valuation being one of the principal features of the latter also; and it works here somewhat as follows: The first thing a merchant at this place is supposed to do on the arrival of an importation of foreign merchandise is, through his custom-house broker, to buy an appraiser. This accomplished, the necessary papers, invoice and all, are then made out for the entry of the goods. It is not probable that an appraiser can always be bought,

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but if one-twentieth part of the stories told among the business men of Para are true the corruption is very great indeed. There is said to exist an established rule, that of the amount of which the government can be defrauded on an importation the broker has one-third, the appraiser one-third, and the importer has the benefit of the other. In fact, it is the current belief here that all regular importers at this place have a standing and permanent agreement with their brokers that, whenever the latter can show that a lot of goods has been passed through at a rate below that which the tariff prescribes, and whereby the government has been defrauded, his money is earned. And such are the delays and other peculiar features of the system, difficulties attending the withdrawal of merchandise from the custom-house, &c., that I feel quite satisfied such a system could not possibly be endured in our country.

A member of a house here for which I have verified 61 invoices since the 1st of January last told me some days ago, in a conversation on the subject, that his firm did not consider our system burdensome, and that they had no complaint to make.

It is proposed, also, to make some change in the law on drawback, or debenture, certificates, and I beg to make a few remarks on that subject also. In countries where vessels are obliged to discharge and load at anchor some distance from the shore, with guard boats near landings on which watch is kept night and day, to which all boats passing to and from the vessels have to report, no doubt, when a customs officer has inspected the lading of goods on which there is allowance of drawback, it is tolerably safe to pay such drawback as soon as the vessel has sailed. But it would seem to be very different in our country, where vessels discharge and load at the wharves, and where vessels bound to foreign ports lie side by side with those bound to ports in the United States, and where, therefore, it is comparatively easy to change the destination of goods after being laden.

I think the oaths of the master and mate of the exporting vessel should be exacted, and that consuls should be more particular than they are in that part of their duties which relates to these certificates. At present the manner in which these documents are treated by many consuls undoubtedly tends to bring the law into contempt. For instance, A, in New York, consigns goods, on which drawback is allowed, to certain merchants at Para, B, C, D, E, and, perhaps, eight or ten others, all on one certificate, by the Ocean Wave, which vessel is consigned to F. A sends a certificate along, which is made out to G, as consignee, who has not an item of goods on the certificate, and yet I found when I came here that it was expected from long usage I believe, more than for any other reason, that I would attest that the signature of G as consignee was true and correct and deserving full faith and credit. Sometimes the certificates were made out to the consignee of the vessels, and often he had no goods on it, and sometimes it was made out to one of the several consignees. It was customary also to send these documents to the consulate already signed by the master and mate, and it was expected that the consul would solemnly attest that these officers had sworn to them before him, even in cases where the goods were landed from foreign vessels whose officers he had never seen.

If I were to attest to the truth of any document of which I knew nothing, or knew to be untrue, merely to suit my convenience, or in order that I might get along smoothly and easily with everybody, I should

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think I ought to ask myself where this sort of thing might be likely to stop.

Some shippers in the United States who ship merchandise to many different parts of the world, finding that a consul at one place will certify freely to such certificates as I have described, and at another a consul who will not act as though they regarded the circumstance as very remarkable, and make pretense of great indignation toward those who, knowing how a thing should be done, require it to be done so. But, so far as my experience goes, the value of the goods covered by these certificates is generally small; in many of those coming to this port less than $100, on some as low as $10 and $15, and is rarely as high as $2,000, $3,000, and $4,000.

It would appear, then, that the fee in many cases is very large. I respectfully beg, therefore, to suggest that the law be so altered as to admit that in cases where there are several consignees combined in one certificate the consul may verify such certificate, provided each of such parties sign the consignee's declaration, the whole for a single fee, this sometimes being allowed, as see note on page 78 of the Consular Regulations, or, say, 50 cents for each additional consignee after the first.

The foregoing is with great deference submitted.

A. C. PRINDLE.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Para, Brazil.

TRADE CONDITIONS AND COMMERCIAL STATISTICS OF VENEZUELA.

REPORT BY CONSUL BARNES, OF CURAÇOA, WEST INDIES, LATELY COMMERCIAL AGENT AT LA GUAYRA.

It is a difficult labor to procure facts of general interest relating to the condition and industries of Venezuela in their bearing upon commerce, and valuable statistics of her commerce itself. This is mostly due to the frequently unsettled political condition, and to a consequent inclination to hide, or a frequent inability to collect, arrange, and publish statistics of general interest. The greater the endeavor to arrive at a knowledge of the capabilities of this naturally rich country and its people, as contributors to the wealth and business activities of the world, the more discouragements arise; and while the broken tables of statistics published by the government may answer its needs, they are not such as may be favorably compared with the tables of other countries, and require much supplementing to approximate a fair exhibit for any recent year.

But as even such facts and statistics as are to be obtained may be of use to some, either for present need or as a basis for future comparisons, and as the Department of State has, thus far, published no attempted compilation of trade facts, from any of its consuls, for the whole Republic of Venezuela, and necessarily brief ones for a few of its ports, I have made during a year such a collection of such facts from current publications, from government reports, and from tables secured by courtesy from customs officials, as enables me to present a statement complete in outline though not satisfactory in detail, which I hope will be of some serv-

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ice, and at least put Venezuela in the annual reports of the Department in the list of countries about which something interesting and progressive may be known. It will be fair to say that under the present condition of the country more attention seems to be bestowed upon the collection of industrial facts for publication and upon the advancement of the industrial interests of the nation. It should also be remembered that the compiler of these scattered and not sufficiently associated tables is not responsible that they are not full, and that they exhibit so little by way of comparative facts.

In such a report as the present, beginning an exhibit for an interesting portion of the world—one to become still more interesting to the United States, whose institutions it professes to imitate—it is proper to say something generally of the country to which the facts adduced particularly relate, without entering into history.

The Republic of Venezuela occupies the northeast part of South America, between latitude 1° 8′ and 12° 16′ north, and longitude 53°15′ and 73° 17′ west. It is bounded on the north by the Caribbean Sea and the Atlantic Ocean, east by British Guiana, south by Brazil, and west by the United States of Colombia. The area of the country is about double that of France and four times that of the State of Colorado, or 400,000 square miles. It would contain eight States as large as that of New York.

About one-third of the country is mountainous, the ranges being spurs of the Andes, reaching the sea in the west and middle portions of the coast country. The west spur has an elevation of not exceeding 4,000 feet, and is covered with forests that may become of great value to both Venezuela and the United States. The eastern spur, about 300 miles long and 60 broad, rises to the limits of Alpine vegetation, having summit plains at a height of 12,000 feet, or contracting to narrow ridges of rock that reach an elevation of more than 15,000 feet in some instances. Between Caracas and its port at La Guayra the mountains reach 8,600 feet in height, and are dotted with cultivated fields and coffee plantations nearly to the summits, accessible only by donkeys for transportation. The eastern spur branches out in various directions, inclosing the lake of Valencia in one direction with most beautiful scenery, and on the other hand extending to the Orinoco River. An isolated group of mountains rises in the south between the Orinoco and the Amazon. This region is also covered with splendid forests, and the highest lands when cultivated would yield the grains and fruits of the temperate zones.

Back of these mountains, extending to the main Andean chain, are the llanos or plains, covering 150,000 square miles, having an elevation from near sea-level to 1,300 feet, and extensively flooded in the rainy season. Above the level of inundation these plains pasture large and numerous herds of horses and cattle.

The country is generally well watered with small streams of clear water; but has only one considerable river, the Orinoco, to which four hundred streams are tributary. Some of these streams are navigable, and the valleys of the principal and some of the tributary rivers are of proverbial fertility.

The natural wealth of this physically remarkable country is undoubtedly great. There are rich mineral deposits in her mountains, destined to rival those of the richest portions of the United States. There is already considerable gold and silver mining done in the large State of Guiana, some in other States, as, Carupano, near the coast; steady and profitable copper mining is pursued in the vicinity of Tucacas, west

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from Puerto Cabello; and Mr. E. H. Plumacher, United States consul at Maracaibo, has recently reported the existence of sources of mineral oil near that city. It is also pretty certain that there is a deposit of good mineral coal within easy reach of Caracas, and probably in other portions of the country.

With a rich soil, in many places of volcanic origin, and in many alluvial; with a climate suitable to the most varied vegetable and similar production; with vast forests of valuable timber; with plains to pasture vast herds; with an extensive sea-coast, excellent natural harbors, and a noble river with tributaries navigable or yet to be made so; with slavery abolished and progressive political institutions adopted and measurably established; with popular education fairly provided for, and enterprise exhibited in the initiation of facilities for more rapid communication; and with a population greater in proportion to area than even at the close of the revolution, it seems no necessity exists for propheseying that Venezuela will become a highly important neighbor of the United States. At present she is, in physical and industrial development, not greatly dissimilar to the North American colonies at the beginning of the eighteenth century, when there were therein but 1,800 miles of post-roads, and 75 post-offices, and the streams between New York and Boston were generally forded. As her development is certain, and certain also to be more rapid than was ours, under the altered and more favorable conditions which we have done so much to establish, and as we are naturally sure to contribute to and share in the benefits of her progress, facts such as are herein grouped together cannot be uninteresting nor useless.

GENERAL STATISTICS.

POPULATION.

According to a census taken in November, 1873, the last, if not also the first, taken in Venezuela, the population numbered as follows:

Political division.	No. of inhabitants.	Political division.	No. of inhabitants.
Federal District	60,010	Guayana	34,053
		Guzman Blanco	94,151
STATES.		Guzman	67,849
		Maturin	47,863
Apure	18,635	Nueva Esparta	80,983
Barcelona	101,396	Portuguesa	79,934
Barquisimeto	143,818	Tàchira	68,619
Bolivar	129,143	Trujillo	108,672
Carabobo	117,605	Yaracui	71,689
Cojedes	85,678	Zamora	59,449
Cumana	55,476	Zulia	59,235
Falcon	99,920		
Guairico	191,000	Total population	1,725,178

It is ordered that a new census be taken, and the enumeration will probably be made before this article is printed.

STATISTICS OF 1876.

A statement of foreign trade, by ports, articles, and countries, for the year ending June 30, 1876, was published by the Government of Vene-

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zuela in 1877. From that publication the following facts for that year are derived:

IMPORTATIONS.

Statement showing the articles, their values, and duties thereon, imported into Venezuela during the year ending June 30, 1876.

Articles.	Values.	Duties.
Animals, food for	$10,702 03	$1,391 51
Animal products	2,898 35	1,181 95
Arms	18,820 94	9,796 86
Building materials	27,842 16	5,871 37
Carriages and harness	52,358 66	2,934 50
Cigarettes and materials	123,783 78	31,099 53
Clocks and watches	103,310 91	7,453 25
Clothing	205,610 17	74,809 30
Coal	3,033 34	....
Coin, gold and silver	725,298 64	.....
Cordage and twine	97,702 39	21,533 86
Corks	4,462 34	1,297 93
Cutlery	16,344 51	3,057 42
Delftware	86,072 08	37,640 69
Dress goods:		
Cotton	3,686,581 01	1,470,641 77
Wool	527,578 58	184,743 69
Linen	1,259,233 61	393,879 38
Linen and cotton	14,741 35	5,224 09
Wool and cotton	11,985 39	4,622 15
Silk	192,218 82	52,808 60
Mixed	27,783 29	8,952 37
Drugs and medicines	273,888 32	94,882 21
Fireworks	16,330 51	8,303 17
Flour	690,068 60	484,802 49
Glassware and glass	99,841 31	47,364 96
Hardware	579,245 52	160,220 93
Hats and caps	241,401 47	86,247 53
Hemp, and manufactures	241,925 51	60,174 69
Household furniture	115,046 74	50,666 28
Instruments:		
Scientific	3,598 45	392 20
Musical	29,179 07	5,640 89
Iron, copper, and zinc manufactures	460,817 79	123,568 73
Machinery	198,148 15	19,461 84
Matches and materials	6,725 35	4,823 23
Metals	34,761 75	9,567 76
Oils and candles	346,382 58	185,590 71
Paintings and materials	38,313 30	14,967 33
Perfumery and hair	96,287 60	45,627 24
Photographs and materials	2,036 38	435 46
Powder and munitions	46,414 92	17,278 30
Printing material and books	38,548 14	72 04
Provisions	1,750,576 90	377,560 41
Sea products	43,563 99	10,512 02
Shoes and materials	234,597 84	76,011 67
Soaps and materials	307,454 71	124,059 68
Thread of all kinds	113,495 15	28,756 02
Tobacco, leaf, and manufactures	165,799 89	56,260 57
Wines and liquors	948 233 85	439,111 61
Woods of all kinds	55,493 37	656 86
Wrapping paper	32,700 81	22,512 85
Miscellaneous	573,030 38	138,910 24
Products from United States of Colombia	62,302 70	.....
Total imports	15,043,373 40	5,013,380 04

Statement showing the value of importations from various countries into Venezuela during the year ending June 30, 1876.

Countries.	Values.	Duties.
Great Britain and colonies	$5,497,558 53	$1,753,736 89
Germany	2,909,484 61	949,074 71
United States	2,587,578 40	941,235 23
France and colonies	2,470,606 53	817,139 06
Spain and colonies	667,953 07	224,776 50
Dutch colonies	637,719 42	249,077 00
United States of Colombia	159,040 08	47,766 03
Danish colonies	92,424 59	25,674 17
Italy	18,233 83	4,321 15
Brazil	2,774 34	579 30
Total	15,043,373 40	5,013,380 04

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EXPORTATIONS.

Statement showing the value and destination of exportations from Venezuela for the year ending June 30, 1876.

Destination.	Values.
Germany	$5,030,601 26
United States	4,845,739 10
France and colonies	3,192,537 25
Great Britain and colonies	2,041,391 48
Spain	456,576 94
United States of Colombia	345,618 20
Dutch colonies	169,825 30
Italy	23,883 00
Danish colonies	3,600 00
Brazil	2,863 02
Total exports	16,112,626 55

Statement showing the various articles, with their amounts and values, exported from Venezuela during the year ending June 30, 1876.

Articles.	Weight.	Values.
	Pounds.	
Coffee	85,472,891	$11,409,506 98
Cacao	10,724,826	1,501,710 75
Gold (in bars, &c)	4,384	941,544 83
Cotton	4,601,128	548,026 52
Money (gold and silver)	2,910	407,505 68
Goat-skins	1,017,095	331,636 59
Hides	2,966,990	186,115 12
Dye-woods, &c	23,072,924	169,298 85
Deer-skins	403,158	135,692 18
Tobacco	337,275	23,782 63
Indigo	12,489	7,546 82
Miscellaneous	9,062,031	447,259 60
Total	137,678,101	16,112,626 55

Statement showing articles, their weight and value, exported to the United States from Venezuela during the year ending June 30, 1876.

Articles.	Weight.	Value.
	Pounds.	
Coffee	23,697,597	$3,969,656 26
Goat-skins	847,508	278,388 64
Money (gold and silver)	671	162,081 04
Hides	617,650	119,985 84
Deer-skins	327,428	113,665 92
Cacao	303,743	48,909 65
Cotton	398,101	43,986 19
Dye-wood and dividivi	2,376,134	18,483 11
Tobacco	109,969	11,115 26
Indigo	1,555	1,170 70
Gold (uncoined)	9	2,214 00
Miscellaneous	1,288,597	76,073 49
Total	29,966,972	4,845,730 10

TOTAL TRADE BY PORTS IN 1876.

The following tables exhibit the value of the total foreign commerce of Venezuela during the year ending June 30, 1876, by ports of entry, and the duties paid upon imports at each port. Maracaibo being closed to foreign trade at that date, entry of goods was made at Puerto Cabello,

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and the value of goods from and for Maracaibo is shown in the tables by designation as "deposited at Puerto Cabello," accordingly:

Importation by ports.

Ports of entry.	Values.	Duties.
Puerto Cabello	$6,067,443 08	$2,181,936 60
La Guaira	6,011,559 71	2,065,446 82
Ciudad Bolivar	1,928,751 06	446,918 29
Carúpano	231,441 13	61,559 91
Deposited at Puerto Cabello	182,025 90	80,974 46
Táchira	159,040 08	47,766 03
Puerto Sucre	127,515 19	50,488 14
Maturin	85,536 29	31,825 70
Guzman Blanco	68,884 51	25,077 25
Güiria	56,711 00	17,431 83
Pampatar	11,922 40	3,375 71
San Carlos de Rio Negro	2,774 34	579 30
In transit for Colombia at Puerto Cabello	109,768 71	.....
Total	15,043,373 40	5,013,380 04

Exportation by ports.

Ports of departure.	Values.
Puerto Cabello	$6,406,126 59
La Guaira	4,378,568 06
Deposited at Puerto Cabello	2,579,247 02
Ciudad Bolivar	1,640,559 16
Carúpano	351,692 62
Táchira	345,452 20
Güiria	161,325 26
Guzman Blanco	102,842 36
Maturin	86,976 13
Puerto Sucre	47,346 00
Pampatar	9,627 13
San Carlos de Rio Negro	2,863 02
In transit for Colombia, via Puerto Cabello	.....
Total	16,112,626 55

MORE RECENT STATISTICS.

No commercial statistics appear to have been published by the Venezuelan Government after those of 1876, until in 1880 partial statistics of 1877 and 1879 appeared. These may be somewhat valuable for future comparisons, and as the beginning in the annual reports of the Department of detailed statistics of Venezuelan commerce. Such as they are, they are here presented:

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS OF 1877.

IMPORTATIONS.

Statement showing the articles imported into Venezuela during the six months ending December 31, 1877, with their values, and duties collected thereon.

Articles.	Values.	Duties.
Arms	$44,994 20	$18,907 70
Building materials	1,430 25	583 79
Carriages and harness	10,045 23	1,108 26
Cigarettes and materials	88,226 13	21,174 55
Coal	492 00	.....
Coin, gold and silver	466,971 66	.....
Cordage and twine	52,398 45	13,039 44
Clothing	130,052 95	38,505 62
Delft ware, fine and common	66,235 42	53,272 82
Drugs and medicines	132,057 32	41,119 63

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Statement showing the articles imported into Venezuela, &c.—Continued.

Articles.	Value.	Duties.
Flour and meal	$348, 118 97	$206, 565 89
Furniture	40, 721 81	24, 587 93
Glass and glassware	40, 436 95	30, 686 49
Goods, dress:		
Silk	83, 441 82	21, 427 83
Wool	276, 492 91	105, 255 99
Linen	414, 513 13	128, 645 49
Cotton	2, 171, 743 67	941, 410 07
Goods:		
Silk and cotton	706 50	162 00
Linen and cotton	28, 741 59	10, 348 47
Wool and cotton	39, 809 53	19, 610 49
Mixed	124, 769 14	51, 052 17
Free of duty	514, 324 82	.....
Hardware and cutlery	217, 648 59	60, 864 60
Hats and materials	122, 615 38	51, 839 81
Hemp and manufactures	97, 305 83	27, 821 76
Iron, copper, and zinc manufactures	285, 851 86	.....
Instruments:		
Scientific	3, 808 49	286 66
Musical	20, 699 84	4, 486 92
Machinery	30, 126 68	7, 005 41
Matches and match sticks	1, 561 90	709 11
Metals	1, 868 57	462 71
Miscellaneous articles	143, 013 45	66, 609 38
Oils and candles	199, 826 85	106, 772 62
Paintings and materials	19, 487 10	8, 984 17
Paper, wrapping	13, 768 74	9, 599 30
Photographs and materials	1, 873 81	333 71
Printing materials	5, 611 84	83 04
Provisions	584, 492 03	151, 235 33
Perfumery and hair	68, 112 84	34, 433 63
Sea products	17, 465 45	3, 349 66
Shoes and materials	158, 439 15	51, 199 85
Soap, &c	149, 417 40	54, 975 31
Thread of all kinds	87, 675 49	20, 786 21
Time-keepers, &c	52, 743 61	3, 789 69
Tobacco, leaf and manufactured	40, 659 24	15, 685 13
Wines and liquors	417, 239 73	242, 968 63
Woods, all kinds	5, 845 77	2, 286 99
Total	7, 853, 114 09	2, 734, 778 29

Statement showing the value of importations and duties, by countries, into Venezuela for the six months ending December 31, 1877.

From what country.	Values.	Duties.
Great Britain and colonies	$3, 063, 974 83	$1, 086, 817 13
France	1, 466, 400 51	552, 479 11
Germany	1, 292, 320 13	466, 267 47
United States	1, 274, 167 00	398, 726 13
Spain and colonies	317, 187 70	105, 099 37
Dutch colonies	182, 388 11	67, 757 10
Danish colonies	139, 717 54	16, 828 49
United States of Colombia	87, 404 05	28, 012 86
Italy	28, 651 51	12, 541 93
Brazil	902 00	248 70
Total	7, 853, 114 09	2, 734, 778 29

The increase of this half year's foreign trade of imports over that of the corresponding time in 1876 is stated to have been $879,298. The decrease in imports from the United States, compared with the last half of the year 1876, is stated to have been $200,552. The duties received are stated to have augmented over the last half of 1876 $494,214. The figures for this comparison are not given.

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Statement showing the value of importations into Venezuela by ports, and the duties thereon, during the six months ending December 31, 1877.

Ports of entry.	Values.	Duties.
Puerto Cabello	$3,607,055 81	$1,302,863 54
La Guaira	3,162,811 67	1,102,272 00
Ciudad Bolivar	760,979 97	228,138 05
Carupano	132,460 26	39,620 18
Tachira	86,914 00	27,605 55
Maturin	33,707 25	12,157 30
Güiria	27,692 86	4,753 68
Puerto Sucre	20,426 67	10,369 32
Pampatar	10,512 20	2,911 43
Guzman Blanco	9,651 40	3,838 54
San Carlos	902 00	248 70
Total	7,853,114 09	2,734,778 29

The foreign trade of Maracaibo was still done through Puerto Cabello, coastwise, and made the latter for a time the most important port in the country, commercially.

EXPORTATIONS.

Statement showing the articles and value of exportations from Venezuela during the six months ending December 31, 1877.

Articles.	Values.
Coffee	$2,902,262
Gold, uncoined	893,568
Cacao	560,341
Goat-skins	147,752
Hides	117,648
Metals	60,568
Cotton	50,373
Tobacco	38,401
Quinia	34,665
Deer-skins	21,741
Dye woods	16,835
Indigo	11,354
Dividivi	8,143
Woods, various	7,687
Miscellaneous	182,178
Total	5,002,516

Statement showing exportations, by destination, articles, and values, from Venezuela, for the six months ending December 31, 1877.

Destination.	Cotton.	Indigo.	Cacao.	Coffee.	Goat-skins.	Hides.	Deer-skins.	Dividivi.
United States	$10,211 52	$9,070 00	$44,611 55	$1,713,296 52	$146,224 76	$100,429 79	$17,777 10	$1,257 91
Germany	13,701 74	572 00	14,538 48	795,071 09	777 60	9,447 06	3,795 53	.....
France	7,653 04	1,712 00	436,352 84	152,225 32	600 00	3,709 38	168 80	4,822 80
Great Britain and colonies	14,008 60	.....	30,860 70	86,634 23	.....	2,287 96	.....	.....
Spain and colonies	3,598 00	.....	42,830 80	268 00	.....	126 00	.....	.....
Italy	1,200 00	.....	107 00	19,118 22	.....	678 00	.....	683 00
United States of Colombia	.....	.....	.....	122,730 00	.....	949 00	.....	.....
Dutch colonies	.....	.....	40 00	12,919 68	150 00	21 00	.....	1,380 00
Danish colonies	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Total	50,373 00	11,354 00	560,341 37	2,902,262 06	147,752 36	117,648 19	21,741 43	8,143 71

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Statement showing exportations, &c.—Continued.

Destination.	Woods.	Dye-woods.	Metals.	Coin.	Quinia.	Tobacco.	Miscellaneous.	Total.
United States	.....	$1,148 20	$15,981 73	$30,673 26	$16,982 00	$5 00	$18,719 25	$2,126,388 59
Germany	$1,746 00	6,068 00	23,617 00	.....	9,055 00	27,478 00	12,897 44	918,764 94
France	2,144 00	3,324 26	8,840 45	.....	468 00	508 00	6,817 00	899,176 19
Great Britain and colonies	3,442 24	1,854 30	11,160 00	802,895 68	6,110 00	10,182 64	103,269 93	1,074,875 99
Spain and colonies	.....	1,016 00	.....	.....	.....	.....	687 68	49,036 48
Italy	.....	2,975 00	.....	.....	50 00	.....	239 00	24,740 22
United States of Colombia	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	5,383 72	129,062 75
Dutch colonies	355 00	450 00	663 00	.....	.....	228 00	38,914 72	50,421 46
Danish colonies	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	50 00	50 00
Total	7,687 24	16,835 76	60,562 18	833,568 94	34,665 00	38,401 64	182,178 77	5,002,516 55

Statement showing the value of exportations, by ports, from Venezuela during the six months ending December 31, 1877.

Ports of departure.	Values.
Puerto Cabello	$2,650,350
Ciudad Bolivar	1,202,840
La Guaira	749,670
Carúpano	155,664
Táchira	122,730
Maturin	20,023
Puerto Sucre	22,472
Güiria	56,200
Guzman Blanco	12,567
Total	5,002,516

It will be observed that shipments from Maracaibo are via Puerto Cabello, and that there appear to have been no exports from the ports of Pampatar and San Carlos de Rio Negro.

By the foregoing tables it will be observed that the trade of Venezuela with foreign countries during the half year under consideration was as follows:

Importations	$7,853,114 09
Exportations	5,002,516 55
Total trade	12,855,630 64

For the corresponding period of the previous year the trade is stated to have been:

Importations	$6,973,815 85
Exportations	6,268,032 25
Total trade	13,241,848 10

Comparing the total trade of the two periods, this shows a diminution in the last, as follows:

Total trade, last six months 1876	$13,241,848 00
Total trade, last six months 1877	12,855,630 00
Decrease	386,218 00

The fluctuations producing this decrease consisted in an increase in imports in the latter period to the amount of $879,297, and a diminution of exports equal to $1,265,515.

FOREIGN TRADE IN 1878.

The only statistics at hand as to the foreign trade of Venezuela in 1878 relate to the United States, and are from the official sources of the latter country. I find nothing of record in Venezuela. These statistics show, in brief, that the imports from the United States amounted to $2,751,000, to which may be added $217,000 in specie, and $70,000 worth of foreign merchandise and specie was imported through the United States. The exports, chiefly coffee and cacao, and $134,000 in specie, amounted to $7,444,000. But these exports, of coffee especially, as for many years, have been to a considerable extent for re-exportation from the United States to European markets, according to demand. Fully one-half of the imports consisted, as usual, in food supplies.

TRADE STATISTICS OF 1879.

In a publication called "Account of the Ministry of the Treasury, 1880," is a curious collection of reports from various sources, out of which it is impossible to make any aggregation or generalization of much value. The trade at some ports of Venezuela is reported, though not according to a uniform rule; as at one port the weight and duties collected upon goods entered are given, and at another the value of the goods alone is shown; while some of the reports are for six months, professedly, though in reality a month is dropped out, and others are for three or even two months. Following these returns of customs officials, that seem so unmeaning as to have no warrant for publication, are several from consular officers, arranged on as flexible a plan. These give some isolated facts, however, of interest. Venezuela could as easily secure and publish a uniform, complete, and valuable statistical exhibit of her annual trade and industries as any country, at as little cost as that incurred for the volume referred to; and it is to be hoped that the progressive energy of her present ruler may be attracted in such a direction.

IMPORTS FROM ENGLAND.

The Venezuelan consul at Liverpool shows that the exports from that port to Venezuela during the year ending June 30, 1877, amounted to $2,537,732 (American gold); for the year ending June 30, 1878, to $3,131,495; and for the year ending June 30, 1879, to only $1,377,999; a decrease in the last year of $1,753,496. The number of vessels clearing for Venezuelan, and many also for intermediate ports, was in the three years respectively 29, 24, and 34, being mostly steamships.

From the ports of London, Greenock, Cardiff, Plymouth, Hayle, Newport, and Portsmouth, in the year ending June 30, 1878, seven vessels carried to Venezuela goods of the value of $56,516; and during the year ending June 30, 1879, two vessels, being all that cleared for Venezuela, carried goods worth only $29,821. These vessels were from Cardiff and Newport, and evidently carried coarse merchandise.

From the port of Grimsby six German steamships made twelve trips to Venezuelan ports, in the fiscal year last named, taking in cargo for Venezuela of the value of $35,208.

These figures, from the only consular reports from England for the

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year, show an aggregate of importation from Great Britain of $1,443,028. Of exportations to British ports no statistics are therein given.

IMPORTS FROM FRANCE.

The consular reports from France make a better showing, statistically, than the foregoing. A semi-monthly line of steamers connects Venezuela with St. Nazaire and Bordeaux, under the French flag, and lines under the French and German flags with Havre, while sailing vessels connect her with Marseilles.

From the port of St. Nazaire, for the six months ending June 30, 1879, the exports to Venezuela amounted to $1,105,540, and the imports from that country to $211,810. The imports alone for the whole year are given, and figure at $705,850. The articles comprising this trade are not given.

Marseilles makes a better showing in information as to exportations—imports into Venezuela, as follows:

Months.	Values.	Months.	Values.
1878.		1879.	
July	$10,926	January	$6,241
August	17,510	February	10,047
September	23,460	March	3,914
October	22,499	April	9,386
November	8,580	May	11,346
December	1,877	June	7,469
		Total	133,255

But the statement for imports—Venezuelan exports—includes articles and weight only, and are of no value in this connection, except as showing a considerable increase in the coffee trade.

The exportations from Bordeaux to Venezuela for a series of years, by value, and the number of vessels in the trade, are shown in the following table:

Year ending—	Vessels.	Values.
June 30, 1875	19	$420,884
June 30, 1876	42	720,877
June 30, 1877	22	627,724
June 30, 1878	26	635,572
June 30, 1879	38	465,886

Of these exports more than two-thirds is stated to be of manufactures not including wines and liquors, of which the total amount is from 1,500,000 to 2,000,000 liters, or from 396,270 to 528,360 United States gallons.

The articles exported from Havre to Venezuela during the year ending June 30, 1879, consisting of dress goods of all kinds, made clothing, headwear, shoes, household furniture, perfumery, writing materials, jewelry and watches, books, pictures, objects in marble, parasols, &c., musical instruments, musical works, drugs, medicines, surgical instruments, iron, copper, zinc, lead and tin manufactures, provisions, wines and liquors, machinery, seeds and plants, &c., amounted in value to $294,668. The importations from Venezuela, consisting of her few well-known natural products entering into commerce, amounted to $557,782, by far the largest part being in the value of coffee. There was a

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decrease in exportations from the previous year of $134,699, and in the importations of $182,574.

The navigation between Havre and ports of Venezuela was by twenty-three trips of steamers and six of sail vessels, aggregating 29,941 tons, an increase in trips and decrease in tonnage over the previous year.

TRADE WITH GERMANY.

It may be said that all the trade of Venezuela with Germany is done through the port of Hamburg, and the statistics must be looked for in that direction. The exports from Hamburg (imports into Venezuela) during the years ending June 30, 1878 and 1879, are shown to have been, in value, as follows, the number of vessels engaged in the trade each month being also shown:

Imports of Venezuela from Hamburg.

Months.	1878.		1879.	
	Value.	Vessels.	Value.	Vessels.
July	$226,720	7	$120,563	5
August	196,482	4	122,708	5
September	202,509	5	124,712	4
October	273,775	9	101,286	4
November	215,889	6	168,045	6
December	325,867	14	140,518	5
January	264,323	5	68,457	4
February	205,498	6	60,668	4
March	232,018	7	62,829	4
April	164,418	3	99,654	5
May	204,634	8	128,488	6
June	155,963	7	152,459	6
Total	2,667,186	81	1,350,408	58

The values of the imports of Hamburg from Venezuela (Venezuelan exports) for the years 1878 and 1879 are not obtainable by me at present. For several previous years they were as follows:

Exports of Venezuela to Hamburg.

Years.	Value.	Years.	Value.
1872	$3,412,042	1875	$4,697,687
1873	4,602,019	1876	4,647,718
1874	4,308,228	1877	4,121,431

The value of the principal articles of this export in the years ending June 30, 1876 and 1877, was as follows:

1876.		1877.	
Articles.	Value.	Articles.	Value.
Coffee	$4,238,785	Coffee	$3,714,569
Cotton	125,023	Cotton	114,266
Cacao	78,947	Tobacco	74,957
Woods	53,649	Cacao	28,492
Tobacco	37,368	Woods	35,196
Dividivi	6,343	Dividivi	23,719
Total	4,540,115	Total	3,991,199

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It may be seen that these articles were nearly all of those exported in 1876, and comprised all but about $130,000 of the value of the exports of 1877.

TRADE WITH NEW YORK CITY.

The trade between Venezuelan ports and New York for the year ending June 30, 1879, is stated as follows by Mr. George Phillips, consul of Venezuela in that city:

Venezuelan imports.

Six months of 1878.	Value.	Six months of 1879.	Value.
July	$209,510 64	January	$124,465 37
August	135,076 14	February	77,139 74
September	85,195 70	March	154,837 77
October	152,693 20	April	105,906 44
November	168,262 31	May	122,822 34
December	113,117 28	June	112,927 22
		Total for the year	1,581,954 15

Venezuelan exports.

Articles.	Value.	Articles.	Value.
Coffee	$2,792,763	Woods	$18,624
Goat-skins	245,739	Cotton	16,356
Deer-skins	204,336	Drugs	2,708
Cattle hides	111,033	Various articles	2,725
Various skins	83,328		
Cacao	53,355	Total	3,607,216
Barks	77,349		

In addition to the trade with the port of New York, some is carried on with Philadelphia, and Southern ports furnish directly a considerable amount of lumber—yellow pine and some cypress.

The following table shows the number, tonnage, and nationality of vessels cleared at New York for Venezuelan ports during the year ending June 30, 1879. As to many of these vessels, they took New York in their way to Venezuelan and other South American ports, and sometimes in returning. I find no complete record, or material for one, for return navigation for the year.

Flag.	From—	CLEARED.					
		Steam.		Sail.		Total.	
		No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
British	New York	20	20,644	6	1,196	26	21,840
United States	do			53	13,832	53	13,832
Venezuelan	do			6	1,332	6	1,332
Italian	do			2	568	2	568
Danish	do			1	358	1	358
French	do			1	287	1	287
German	do			1	197	1	197
Dutch	do			1	192	1	192
Total		20	20,644	71	17,962	89	38,606

In November, 1879, a new line of steamers was established between New York and La Guayra, Venezuela, employing three vessels, under the German flag. The first steamer of the line, the Felicia, 863 tons, sailed November 25; the second, the Augustus, 1,126 tons, December 30; and the last, the Claudius, 1,545 tons, March 4. The route, at first

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direct, was changed early in 1880 via Curaçoa, West Indies; and a new steamer, the Maracaibo, built in the United States but put under the British flag, forms the connection between Maracaibo, Venezuela, and the line from New York, at Curaçoa. Trips between New York and Venezuela are now regularly semi-monthly, and the line of sailing vessels formerly operating has been withdrawn. The steamers named were chartered experimentally, and not being built for the accommodation of passengers, they do not fully meet the present demand, while furnishing, with accommodations recently added, better passage than by sail vessels. Messrs. Dallett, Boulton & Co., of 135 Pearl street, New York, the enterprising proprietors of this line, are building steamers to take the place of those under charter. The one built for them, and now connecting Maracaibo with Curaçoa, has excellent accommodations for thirty passengers; and another steamer, building in the United States, to be ready to replace a chartered one in May or June, probably will have sufficient room for as many. It may now be looked upon as certain that good accommodation for passengers and freight will be sufficiently provided between New York and Venezuela for the future, and regular trips made with sufficient speed. The effect upon trade between the two countries will naturally be in our favor. Regular half-monthly trips, with a city like New York to draw upon for supplies, are facts which must strongly influence the merchants of Venezuela. The building of railroads in Venezuela, one having been commenced between La Guayra and Caracas, with a reasonable certainty of completion, will healthily increase activity, stimulate production, and augment commerce. It will also serve to discourage the trade in political disturbance, by setting against it large vested interests sensitive to change, and thus promote stability of government and the prosperity of the people.

THE COMMERCE OF LA GUAYRA.

It has been as troublesome to gather statistics of the trade of this port as of any other port of Venezuela. The sources of my information are the consulate, the custom-house to a small extent, and the commercial records of the daily press for a year—the year ending September 30, 1880.

As La Guayra is the end of the line connected now by steamers with New York, should commercial men of the latter city read this report they may desire to know something of the city and port and the country tributary to them.

The city was built by the Spaniards, and was walled and strongly fortified. Improvement has overrun and partly obliterated the appearance of its military character from within, but it still presents an imposing, picturesque, and warlike front to the sea. The mountain called the "Silla" rises close behind the town, to a height of about 8,600 feet, Caracas lying back of the mountain, south of La Guayra, not 10 miles distant in a straight line, but 23 by the usual road. The sea has an indentation into the land at La Guayra, too little to make a bay, however, and ships lie at anchor in a half bay and half roadstead, with all necessary depth of water. Around the crescent shore the mountain and sea leave room for one, and in some places two streets, where are the government buildings and principal stores. The portion for residences is upon the foothills of the mountain. The city contained in 1877 about 8,000 inhabitants, and has for a neighbor, scarcely separated from it, Maiquetia, with some 4,000. Goods have to be landed and shipped in lighters, as, if wharfs were in existence, ships could not lie at them, on

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account of the motion of the sea. It seems possible that a breakwater might be built that would remedy this evil, though at considerable cost.

Caracas, the capital of Venezuela, is a rather handsome city of 60,000 people, in a valley like that of some remaining Paradise. It is about 4,000 feet above the level of La Guayra, and gives to the latter nearly all its importance as a seaport. The country near and to the south of Caracas is fertile, and the mountain sides are clothed with coffee plantations, while the valleys are cultivated for vegetables and food for animals, or in sugar-cane. The two cities are now being connected by rail, over a route 28 miles long. At present all transportation is by donkeys over the early Spanish road, and by donkeys and mule carts over the stage road. The constant processions of trains of these looks from a distance like the activity of large ants. The people accustom themselves necessarily to the slow and patient movements of their animals. The shriek and rush of the locomotive will probably produce a transformation in business and people alike, and bring their ideas into nearer relation with those of the more active world. Still, a tropical heat will maintain its influence, and never allow a full release from deliberate modes.

TRADE STATISTICS.

The press of La Guayra is supposed to be furnished with and to publish full lists of importations and exportations, with values in the latter case. I have compiled with great care the following table of exports, and have tested it in every way open to me, and believe that the values and weights are relatively correct. But that the statement is a full one I cannot believe, after comparing the value of exports to the United States, given therein, with the statement succeeding it, taken from invoices. I can account for the difference only on the assumption that the press does not publish a large amount of commercial information relative to the port.

Statement showing the weight and value of articles exported from the port of La Guayra to principal countries, during the year ending September 30, 1880, as compiled from the publications of newspapers at La Guayra during that period.

Articles.		Germany.	France.	United States.	Great Britain.	Total.
Coffee:						
Weight	pounds..	8,761,513	4,565,927	753,993	1,096,560	21,977,993
Value	dollars..	844,228	402,262	160,744	126,214	1,623,448
Cacao:						
Weight	pounds..	1,365,885	3,960,539	63,793	461,231	5,851,448
Value	dollars..	172,558	447,860	8,287	51,988	680,693
Hides:						
Weight	pounds..	121,497	41,341	75,523	40,860	279,221
Value	dollars..	12,292	4,361	6,007	3,920	26,580
Skins:						
Weight	pounds..	13,823	.....	77,978	.....	91,801
Value	dollars..	2,227	.....	10,987	.....	13,214
Miscellaneous:						
Weight	pounds..	160,929	55,104	6,314	14,850	937,197
Value	dollars..	17,549	4,714	363	3,064	25,690
Coin:						
Value	dollars..	110,983	23,111	57,519	27,490	219,103
Total:						
Weight	pounds..	11,123,647	8,622,911	979,601	1,613,501	22,339,660
Value	dollars..	1,159,837	972,308	243,907	212,676	2,588,728

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EXPORTS TO THE UNITED STATES.

Statement showing the declared exports from the port of La Guayra to the United States during the year ending December 31, 1880.

Articles.	Quarter ending March 31.	Quarter ending June 30.	Quarter ending September 30.	Quarter ending December 31.	Total for the year.
Coffee	$92,652 05	$226,170 67	$250,231 42	$157,771 92	$726,826 06
Hides and skins	22,512 28	21,572 28	21,213 86	26,817 82	92,116 24
Cacao	1,207 92	29,406 31	22,595 34	6,303 03	59,512 60
Miscellaneous	1,657 09	1,100 94	6,824 19	1,183 75	10,765 97
Costs and charges	13,301 31	34,281 89	Included.	Included.	47,583 20
Total	131,330 65	312,532 09	300,864 81	192,076 52	936,804 07

NAVIGATION.

The following table representing the navigation at the port of La Guayra, compiled from the books of the consulate and the daily press record, may be accepted as correct. The sailing-vessels under the United States flag constituted a portion of a line from New York, and are now superseded by steamers under the German flag, making semi-monthly trips. The business over the route is on the increase, and vessels with better passenger accommodation are being built in the United States to constitute a permanent line to Venezuelan ports. It is very desirable that the new line should be under the flag of the United States—a flag so seldom seen now in southern waters, that it scarcely invites attention.

Statement showing the navigation at the port of La Guayra for the year ending September 30, 1880.

Flag.	From or to—	ENTERED.					
		Steamers.		Sailing-vessels.		Total.	
		No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
British	Ports of England	*65	.....	14	.....	79	.....
French	Ports of France	*74	.....	7	.....	81	.....
German	Hamburg and New York	*54	.....	15	.....	69	.....
United States	Ports of United States	*1	615	15	3,669	16	4,284
Danish	Hamburg	.....	.....	12	.....	12	.....
Italian	Italian ports	.....	.....	5	.....	5	.....
All others	Mostly of Germany	.....	.....	12	.....	12	.....
Total	.....	194	.....	80	.....	274	.....

Flag.	From or to—	CLEARED.					
		Steamers.		Sailing-vessels.		Total.	
		No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
British	Ports of England	64	.....	13	.....	77	.....
French	Ports of France	75	.....	8	.....	83	.....
German	Hamburg and New York	56	.....	14	.....	70	.....
United States	Ports of United States	1	615	15	3,669	16	4,284
Danish	Hamburg	.....	.....	11	.....	11	.....
Italian	Italian ports	.....	.....	6	.....	6	.....
All others	Mostly of Germany	.....	.....	11	.....	11	.....
Total	.....	196	.....	78	.....	274	.....

* Of the steamers, one was a United States war vessel, the Nipsic; one a British and one a German man-of-war, and two were French men-of-war.

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To show the full activity of the port from foreign shipping entering and departing, the following tabulated statement was prepared, and will be of interest:

Statement showing the arrival and departure of foreign vessels at La Guayra during the month of June, 1880.

Date.	Flag.	Name.	Tons.	Remarks.
June 1	German	Brig Elinora	213	From Hamburg, with cargo.
2	....do	Brig La Plata	160	From Para, in ballast.
4	. do	Steamer Cyclop	732	From Hamburg, via St. Thomas, cargo.
5	British	Steamer Statesman	1,209	From Liverpool, with cargo.
5	... do	Steamer Derwent	1,605	From Southampton, with cargo.
6	French	Steamer Lafayette	1,990	From Colon, &c., in ballast.
13	German	Steamer Augustus	1,126	From New York, with cargo.
14	French	Steamer St. Simon	1,740	From Havre, with cargo.
14	British	Steamer Californian	1,280	From Liverpool, with cargo.
14	French	Steamer St. Dominique	710	From St. Nazaire, with cargo.
14	Danish	Brig Anne Jorgiane	212	From Hamburg, with cargo.
15	British	Steamer Esequibo	1,205	From Central America, in ballast.
15	German	Steamer Saxonia	1,320	From Hamburg, with cargo.
16	French	Steamer St. Dominique	710	From Curaçao, in ballast.
18	German	Steamer Borussia	1,230	Do.
19	Spanish	Brig Rosario	115	From Santa Cruz, cargo.
21	Italian	Brig Tunisi	189	From Genoa, cargo.
23	French	Steamer St. Germain	2,295	From St. Nazaire, cargo.
25	German	Steamer Felicia	794	From New York, cargo.
25	British	Steamer Bolivar	1,576	From Liverpool, cargo.
30	French	Steamer St. Simon	1,740	From Colon, in ballast.

The destination is not given in the remarks. Two of the steamers were of the line between New York and La Guayra, and are under the German flag. An analysis of the table shows that during the month sixteen steamers, six French, five British, and five German, and two German, one Danish, one Spanish, and one Italian, brigs, five in all, visited the port of La Guayra. It need not be said that the flag of the United States did not appear. It seldom does now. The aggregate tonnage of these vessels is 22,151 tons. The rate for June is an index of the rate for the year, and a probaby fair one, and as such shows the arrival of vessels for the year as follows: Number of vessels: steamships, 192; aggregate tonnage, 255,144 tons; sailing-vessels, 60; aggregate tonnage, 10,668 tons; total, 252 vessels, 265,812 tons.

The coastwise trade and navigation of Venezula are quite active. In a land where roads and navigable streams are so infrequent, the sea becomes of greater importance, both for trade and travel. The coast mariners of the country, using mostly vessels of light burden, are skillful and intrepid, and with the fishermen make an active and hardy part of the population. The number of coasters entering at the port of La Guayra during the year ending September 30, 1880, was 1,640, an average of 134 per month; and the number cleared was 1,629, an average of 135 per month. These movements included vessels of the navy, however; but as the navy consists of only two small steamers, and not many more sail-vessels, the rejection of them from the account would modify the result but slightly.

THE MARKETS OF LA GUAYRA AND CARACAS.

There is little difference usually in market prices during a year in tropical countries, except on articles of import, and not much change on many of those. From year to year there may be changes in the prices of wheat, flour, corn, meal; but not much on articles of manufacture, nor in any table articles, like butter and cheese. Many arti-

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cles are high enough to the consumer to need no change for profit to the seller, it seems, whatever be the state of the foreign market. The following table shows the customary market prices of the articles named at La Guayra, and it is about the same at Caracas, at Puerto Cabello, &c.

Statement showing the prices current at La Guayra, for the year 1880.

Articles.	Measure.	Prices.
Aguardiente	Case	$4 50
Bananas	100	$0 80 to 1 00
Brooms:		
Native	Dozen	80 to 4 40
American	do	80 to 3 20
Butter:		
Holland	Pound	60 to 80
German	do	48 to 50
American	do	40
Candles:		
Sperm	100 pounds	16 00 to 17 60
Tallow	Dozen	60
Cheese:		
Native	100 pounds	16 00 to 20 00
Patagrás	do	32 00
Holland	Box	13 60 to 14 20
Chick peas	100 pounds	12 00 to 12 80
Cocoa nuts	100	1 20
Cocoa oil	Bottle	12 to 14
Codfish:		
Norway	100 pounds	6 40 to 8 00
American	do	6 40
Corn:		
Tengueragua	100 pounds	6 80
American	Sack	2 00 to 2 20
Fish, dry	100 pounds	6 40 to 9 60
Flour	Barrel	13 80 to 14 40
Garlic:		
Native	100 strings	20 00 to 24 80
Foreign	do	20 00 to 24 80
Ham, American	100 pounds	24 00
Kerosene	Case	4 60 to 4 80
Lard, American	100 pounds	15 20 to 17 60
Onions, native	do	10 40 to 12 80
Papelon (black sugar)	Case	6 00 to 7 20
Peanuts	Bushel	5 60
Potatoes, foreign	100 pounds	8 00 to 9 60
Rice, foreign	do	3 60 to 4 00
Salt	do	5 80 to 6 00
Soap:		
Home made	Box	6 00
Star	do	1 10
Sole leather	Side	4 00 to 5 20
Starch, native	100 pounds	4 40 to 4 80
Sugar:		
Refined	do	19 20 to 20 80
Native	do	8 00 to 9 60
Tallow:		
Native	do	4 80 to 5 20
American	do	15 20 to 16 80
Tobacco, black, N. C	Roll	5 20 to 5 60
Tobacco	Pound	48
Vermicelli	100 pounds	12 00 to 12 80
Vinegar:		
Foreign	Case	8 00 to 10 40
Native, triple	do	5 60
Plain	do	3 20
Wicks	100 pounds	57 60 to 64 00
Wine:		
Sweet	Case	20 80 to 24 00
Dry	do	25 60 to 28 80
Superior	do	22 40
Bordeaux	do	34 40

The market for butter in Venezuela is a good one, but not for poor brands. The best butter for sale there is presumed to be from Sweden, but is probably put up in London. That from Germany is a fair article, but still not equal to Holland butter. Some in small cans with the Swedish mark is put up in New York, I am informed; but a large

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amount of butter that an American would refuse to have upon his table is sent from the United States as American butter, and the market is not improved by it. First-class American butter, if it once became known, would fetch first-class prices. It should be put up in one and two pound cans, and should avoid gaudy-colored labels. Nothing can be neater than the packages of Holland butter and vegetables, and they command the best prices. But little American cheese seems to be purchased in Venezuela, and its popularity is about equal to that of the butter. Occasionally it is good, but still inferior to the Holland round cheeses. If put up in the same style, and as good as the New York market can supply, it would find buyers enough. Onions and potatoes from the United States are popular. Hams from there sell very well, but people who can afford it prefer to buy European hams, which are in many respects preferable, though much dearer. I see no good reason why fancy soaps, perfumery, &c., should not find a market in Venezuela. I think there is much room for well-canned meats, especially beef. Our canned oysters and fruits have considerable sales. But, generally, too little care is taken in preparing goods for these markets, where people show much taste through the eye as well as the palate. It pays to take pains and make goods attractive and neat.

Lard, kerosene, pine and cypress lumber, corn and flour are already sent from the United States to Venezuela in as full measure as the market demands. We are likely to furnish the full supply indefinitely. Potatoes are taken from the same source, to some extent, and Holland aids in the supply. Apples and pears, in their latest season, sell at high prices. With steady and improved steam communication the United States will absorb the principal foreign trade of Venezuela, especially if care be taken to suit the market as well in dress goods and cottons as in articles of table consumption.

In addition to the coffee, cacao, and hides and skins now shipped to the United States, it is probable that a trade will spring up in fruits, and that some kinds now unknown to many of the people of our cities will become popular, either in a natural or prepared state. It is but a short time since the systematic preparation of fruit for foreign markets became a business, and it may develop as much in South and Central America, and the West Indies, as it has elsewhere.

CONCLUSION.

Should the contemplated lines of railroad be completed in Venezuela, viz, one from La Guayra to Caracas, and one from Puerto Cabello to Valencia, and perhaps one from the head of Lake Maracaibo into the neighboring United States of Colombia, it is likely that the foreign commerce of Venezuela would be considerably increased, and her relations with the world be bettered. At present, owing to slow and costly transportation to and from the interior, it cannot be doubted that much that is useful to commerce, and many articles desirable by the interior population, fail to be moved. With increased facilities there, as elsewhere, production as well as commerce would find encouragement; and the result in so rich and productive a country must be encouraging and great. At present the productions of Venezuela which find a foreign market, excepting some of the coffee, cacao, and the hides, are skimmed from the comparatively narrow belt along the sea, leaving a rich and nearly stagnant interior undeveloped and almost unknown to mankind without. The stimulation of production by easy, rapid, and comparatively cheap transportation would have a healthful influence upon the national af-

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fairs through the industrial, that would be at once and increasingly felt. Revolution would be discouraged by the power of interests antagonistic to disturbance, until influences more legitimate than those of personal ambition would at least hold the balance of power, and be able thus to direct affairs as self-interest would require, in the ways of wisdom and paths of peace.

ALMONT BARNES,
Consul.
(*Late Commercial Agent at La Guayra.*)

CURAÇAO, WEST INDIES,
March 18, 1881.

CONTINENT OF ASIA.

TRADE OF COCHIN CHINA.

REPORT BY CONSUL STUDER, OF SINGAPORE.

I have the honor to inform the Department, the United States having no Consular officer at Saigon, in French Cochin China, who could report upon the commerce, progress, &c., of that country as well as upon French Cambodia, a souzerain State adjoining Cochin China, that I requested some time ago the governor of French Cochin China, through the consulate of France at this port, for information regarding the same and for transmittal to my government in the shape of an annual governmental report with statistical tables (generally known under the name of "Blue Book"), and that he responded to my request lately also through the agency of the French consulate here, the latter sending to me, accompanied by a courteous dispatch of transmittal, in which he says that his excellency the governor at Saigon was only too glad to be agreeable to this Consulate, a book entitled "Etat de la Cochin Chine Française, pendant l'année 1879." I acknowledged the receipt thereof, with thanks to the said consul.

This is a very interesting book indeed; demonstrating in a very systematical, practical, and lucid way the commerce and navigation at Saigon, also about docks, arsenals, public works, agriculture, botany, domestic industries, the manner of conducting public affairs and carrying on the government (revenues, judicial business, &c.). It conveys in a general way a good idea, not only of the importance of the colony in various respects, but also of what has been accomplished by the French Government, not losing sight of the fact that Cochin China when conquered by the French, not so many years ago, was a very barbarous country, the abode and lurking place of a bad, cruel type of pirates.

I have the honor to transmit to the Department, under separate cover, the book just alluded to, by the same mail that carries this dispatch. I can only regret that I have not the time to translate this book, at least the most important parts, as commerce, navigation, and agriculture, for the information of our public.

The chief article of export of Cochin China and Cambodia through the port of Saigon, near the mouth of the mighty "Meikong" River, is rice; the other articles of export, products of the country, are substantially the same as those of Siam, teak and other woods excepted (which latter, in Siam, are floated down the Menam River from Laos, a souzeraine province at the northwest of Siam proper, bordering on Burmah).

Sugar planting on the rice alluvial bottoms skirting the Meikong River

was commenced a few years ago, and is on the increase. The cane thrives exceedingly well there, and yields a large percentage of saccharine matter. The colonial government fosters this cultivation in every possible way, not only by letting planters have lands on easy terms, but by even advancing money to good, energetic men. It is, therefore, to be reasonably expected that ere long large quantities of sugar will be exported from Saigon.

If I were asked whether the time has arrived when the United States should have a consul there, I would, unhesitatingly, answer in the affirmative. American ships enter the port of Saigon from time to time, the number increasing during the last two years, and if a market for the sale of American goods is to be created (the commerce of Saigon is more in the hands of German than French or British firms), we should have a consular officer there. I am aware that the appointment would give satisfaction to the colonial government.

There is an American, a merchant, at Saigon, by the name of Andrew Spooner, of whom the French consul here, who knows him personally and respects him very highly, told me that he is by far the ablest and most enterprising man in Cochin China, and has been a member of the colonial legislature; that he has a large mill for unhulling *all* the paddy (rice) exported from Saigon, and is otherwise engaged in large enterprises; that he is very highly respected in the colony. I have never been at Saigon, and am not personally acquainted with Mr. Spooner; but, after hearing such a good account of him as the foregoing, I have formed a good opinion of him.

A. G. STUDER,
Consul.

CONSULATE OF THE UNITED STATES AT SINGAPORE,
February 19, 1881.

THE NEW LOCAL GOVERNMENTS OF JAPAN.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL VAN BUREN.

The ancient government of Japan was an imperial absolutism, the whole power of governing being in the throne. The land and the personal services of the people were the Emperor's. The occupancy of the soil and the right of tillage were granted to all males, females, minors, and slaves at low rates. The personal service exacted was confined to males, and was one day in twelve for adults and one in twenty-four for minors.

The military usurpation of the Shoguns gradually undermined this system and established a feudal despotism. When these usurpations had been completed, the whole power and privileges of society were in the hands of two hundred and sixty chiefs and less than half a million of their retainers, men at arms. They held all the offices of government, both civil and military. They monopolized the whole of the land and exacted heavy tribute from every trade and occupation. The other thirty million people were powerless and voiceless. They had no human rights, except the right to live, toil, and obey their masters.

The revolution of 1868 swept away feudalism, and its powers were relegated to the Emperor, who established a bureaucratic centralism in its stead, which exercised all the powers of the general and local governments.

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Although the people gained no political power from this change, they were relieved from an odious class system, and procured the right to own the soil they tilled, and enjoyed incomparably greater civil rights.

This was the new government up to 1878. In July of that year an imperial decree was issued, establishing local elective assemblies over the whole empire. The country had been divided into thirty-six ken and three fu, which latter were different only in name. These districts were subdivided into ku (villages) and gun (suburban divisions). Each of these different divisions and subdivisions has its assembly. These bodies have no real legislative functions, but a supervising power over the estimates and expenditures of the local governments in their various districts. The assemblies of the ken, which answers in some respects to our State, are ken-kai, and in this ken of Kanagawa, with a population of 750,000, it is composed of 47 members. They are elected for a term of four years, one-half the number being elected every two years. The qualifications for membership are, first, male, twenty one years of age, a resident of the ken, and a land tax payer to the amount of 10 yen per year.

The following are ineligible:

1st. Lepers.

2d. Convicted traitors.

3d. Convicted felons, until after four years of good behavior.

4th. Bankrupts.

5th. Priests and government officials.

6th. Those who have served for one term until one term thereafter has expired.

The qualifications for electors are the same as for members, except that the requirement as to the amount of land tax paid is 5 yen, instead of 10 yen, per year.

MODE OF ELECTION.

All elections are by ballot. The times and places of election are appointed by the governor of the ken, and fifteen days' public notice must be given. The ballot must bear the name and residence of the voter.

A majority vote elects, but when two candidates receive the same number of votes the elder takes the preference. If of the same age, the choice between them is decided by lot. Votes can be cast by proxy. If the person elected declines the office the one receiving the next highest number of votes is taken.

The regular sittings of these assemblies are thirty days each year, but extra sessions can be held under call of the chairman. There is no pay or traveling expenses or other emoluments attached to the office of membership of these assemblies. Clerical officers are paid.

DUTIES AND POWERS.

The duties of these assemblies are—

First. To receive the estimates for current expenses from the governor and to thoroughly examine and deliberate upon them in the interest of their constituents, changing, modifying, striking out or inserting items, as they may think best. If any items are excessive they have authority to reduce them, and, if inadequate, to add to them. If any needed improvements are not included they may insert them. The estimates thus amended are returned to the governor.

Secondly. To provide the necessary revenue by proposing a tax-bill, this to be sent to the governor for his consideration. In case of disagree-

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ment between these respective bodies and the governor, the matter must be decided by the great council at Tokio.

The matters thus under local control are—

1st. Expenses of the police.
2d. Construction and repairs of roads and bridges.
3d. Hospitals and sanitary institutions.
4th. All educational matters.
5th. Construction and repairs of dikes and embankments.
6th. Reservoirs and irrigating ditches.
7th. Construction and repair of public buildings.

There is no power in the local authorities to prorogue or interfere with these assemblies.

The ku (village) and gun (country district) assemblies are intermediate between the ken, or provincial assemblies, and the people. The qualifications of the members and electors are the same as above described. They represent directly the people of their districts, and are supposed to know intimately the wishes and needs of their constituents. All proposed estimates and tax levies go to them from the ken assemblies and are considered and approved or amended by them. They apportion the taxation of their districts and superintend the collections. They receive all petitions, verbal or written, of the people, and reject or approve and forward them to the ken assemblies. They are the immediate friends, advisers, and mouth-pieces of the people.

This is the first system of elective representation instituted in this empire and these are the first representative bodies with any real power which have had an existence in Japan. The system has many faults. It is rather complicated and cumbersome. The ballot is defective in that it is not secret, and, therefore, liable to be influenced. The voting by proxy is objectionable as tending to center the power in the hands of a few. The qualifications for membership and for electors are entirely too restrictive. Its whole tendency is to give the control of local affairs to the landholders and to build up a landed aristocracy. The making members ineligible for consecutive terms is questionable as depriving the people of the experience of their representatives.

With all these defects, however, the creation of the system is a new era, not only in the political history of Japan, but it is unparalleled in the history of any Asiatic people.

THOS. B. VAN BUREN,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Kanagawa, Japan, January 6, 1881.

HOW TO ENLARGE THE CONSUMPTION OF ANTHRACITE COAL.

REPORT BY CONSUL STUDER, OF SINGAPORE.

Some time ago I noticed in one of our American commercial journals that some of our anthracite coal mines were obliged to reduce their output because the market was overstocked with coal, the demand not equaling the production. Upon mature reflection, based upon such experience as I have had an opportunity of gaining at this far-away, but very important, post, and believing that it lays within the power and wealth of our nation to vastly increase the sale of that staple article,

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anthracite coal, and, thereby, in various ways, our foreign commerce and home industries, I have the honor to make a few well-meant suggestions, in the hope that they may do some good, even if they should fail to be instrumental in bringing about all I, with many others of my fellow-citizens of the United States, could wish.

During the first few years of my residence as consul here, at a time when petroleum had hardly made its appearance in Eastern markets, and did not, therefore, offer an opportunity for freighting American vessels bound from our shores to India, China, &c., and the demand in the East for goods of American production was reduced to a very few articles, our ship-owners in Boston (at that time chiefly) dispatching vessels to the East to bring back colonial products on owners' account, loaded some of them in lieu of ballast, and at the same time to serve as ballast, with anthracite coal. Vessels arrived at this port from time to time, at long intervals, thus ballasted, and brought also plug tobacco, rosin, turpentine, ash-oars, preserved and canned provisions and fruits, in rare instances carriages and sundry other goods, which were sent out to try the market. Unless an American man-of-war, not long out from the United States, and having still the fire-grates which are used when anthracite coal serves as fuel for steam, was in port, it was next to impossible to sell the small lots of anthracite coal seeking a market. American steamers we had none, *not one* (nor now), and all the British, French, and all foreign steamers were, without exception, provided with fire-grates on which to burn English and other bituminous coals (Borneo coal among them) and also wood. The soft-coal grates have more space between the bars than those used for anthracite coal. Soft coal, as is well known, is sent to market in large lumps, while anthracite coal at the mines is broken into different sizes, and, when required for producing steam, the lumps or pieces are much smaller than those of soft coal, and have to be, if steam is to be produced with dispatch, ignition being slower than that of bituminous coal.

I can remember how on a number of occasions the consignees of these occasional lots of anthracite coal used to ask me: "Do you expect an American man-of-war soon?" When answering as I knew, and asked "Why?" I received the answer: "O, we still have that American coal, brought out by such or such vessel, and as we cannot sell it without much loss, we hold on in the hope of getting something near the value of it"; and then they explained that owing to soft-coal grates in all the steamers visiting this port, they could find no buyers for it, at any rate not at a fair price, near cost. It was only when the coal, owing to long exposure to the very moist atmosphere prevailing here, began to crumble, deteriorate, the consignees would sell it *very* cheap, to be used, mixed with soft coal (to be thrown on top of soft coal in the furnaces).

After such, as a rule, unsuccessful experiments, there were no more arrivals of anthracite coal, especially after petroleum found a firm market here, the importation of the latter steadily increasing.

This latter very important American staple article has been of great help to American shipping. This is a sure article as long as the oil wells hold out, and let us hope they may hold out for ages to come. But if we could add thereto anthracite coal for all Eastern ports of any importance, American sailing vessels need not entertain the fear, as is now the case with many, that steam navigation will drive them from the sea. On the contrary, if managed properly, one kind can become the profitable agent of the other kind of vessels.

But, would one naturally exclaim after reading the foregoing very unfavorable past experiences in the sale of anthracite coal in the East

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several years ago, "What a change has come over you all at once!" I could only answer: "No change except that I am a few years older, gained more experience since then, but if a change is to take place it must be commenced or initiated in our own country." And so it is! English and other steamers engaged in the vast carrying trade of the great East, in which as regards steamers our nation has no share, burn English and other species of bituminous coals on soft-coal grates, and would not in the past, as I have shown, change their grates to burn anthracite coal. They have large depots of soft coal throughout the Mediterranean from Gibraltar to Port Saïd, at Suez, Aden, and in all the colonial ports of Africa, Asia, the Indo-Malayan Archipelago, Siam, Cochin China, the Philippine Islands, China, and Japan. If American citizens will dispatch American steamers to offer competition in the said carrying trade, and make it a point to burn only American anthracite coal, and, to this end, establish convenient depots for all necessary supplies at all the principal ports to be touched by them or *wherever needed*, taking care to keep up the stock (assuming that it would be fully as cheap for producing steam as soft coal), it seems to me that there would be no longer any necessity for reducing the output of anthracite coal at our mines, but that even in the course of time more miners might be wanted. And, who knows, perhaps some of the foreign steamers, when they find that they can depend on getting at several ports all the required supplies of anthracite coal, and that the use of it will cost no more than soft coal, might find it advantageous to change their grates."

Ice machines having come in vogue throughout the East, furnishing ice at very reasonable rates, have given the death-blow to the carrying trade of ice from ports of New England to the East. But if the new era of American steam navigation in the East and elsewhere is setting in, pretty soon the owners of sailing vessels will find that anthracite coal will more than take the place of ice, and not melt a certain percentage of the cargo on the way.

I hope I may live to see the day when my simple suggestion will become a reality.

A. G. STUDER,
Consul.

CONSULATE OF THE UNITED STATES AT SINGAPORE,
February 26, 1881.

CONTINENT OF EUROPE.

INTRODUCTION OF AMERICAN PRODUCTS AND MANUFACTURES INTO AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL WEAVER, OF VIENNA.

A WARNING TO AMERICAN MANUFACTURERS.

Allow me again to refer to the subject of the importation of American products and manufactures into the empire of Austria-Hungary; for notwithstanding the frequent warnings given to our merchants in former dispatches that the markets of this country could be won and retained only by the employment of the most honorable business methods, sup-

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plemented with thorough wide-awake American tact and energy, yet it becomes my disagreeable duty to report a transaction recently brought to my attention which cannot but prejudice the minds of Austrians against us, and injure deeply what had promised to become a profitable trade. The case, omitting all names, was as follows:

During the past year a firm, in whom I had sufficient confidence to give a letter of recommendation to our American merchants, sent a representative to the United States to establish business connection with manufacturing and exporting houses. Among other articles it was believed that rubber hose might find a large sale in this country for many purposes, but particularly for the wine industry. Consequently business connections with a leading New York firm were established and samples sent, which, with slight alterations, met the wants of the trade. Flattering commencements were made, orders came in rapidly, and it was confidently believed that in this single article alone the sales for the first year would reach $100,000. Trial orders were secured amounting to over $5,000, and the specification stated particularly that the walls of the hose should not be less than five centimeters. The goods arrived in due time apparently in fine condition, were delivered confident of meeting approval, but on further examination it was found that the five-centimeter walls of the hose did not extend throughout the piece, but after continuing for a yard from each end fell off to *three* centimeters. As a result the entire lot was refused and sent back to the agents, the trick characterized as a slovenly American fraud, and probably the trade injured for many a day to come. The attention of the manufacturers being called to the impropriety and effect of such transaction, they cooly replied that seeing the character of their manufactures did not suit the Austrian markets they had concluded to withdraw their goods, and consequently gave orders that all stock on hand should be returned to New York. Thus, through this deliberate act of bad faith or a misapprehension of instructions or a censurable lack of care, difficult to explain in any satisfactory manner whatever, ended suddenly and dishonorably what certainly would have developed into a profitable business. But the injury did not stop there; confidence had been weakened, suspicions and prejudices have been aroused, which to neutralize and remove will require a long period of patient effort and honorable dealings.

But however heavily handicapped our products and manufactures may be on the Austrian market by national jealousies and prejudices, by protective duties and formalities, as well as by short-sighted or time-serving merchants or their agents who prefer an immediate insignificant gain, even if to procure it they must resort to questionable tricks in trade that may destroy a large future profitable business, yet there can be scarcely a doubt that the present import trade from the United States to this country is nevertheless, and in spite of these drawbacks, constantly and rapidly increasing, and that eventually certain additional classes of our manufactures, which are as yet strangers to, or but little known upon these markets, may be profitably introduced. Their introduction, however, cannot fail to incite the deep-rooted feeling of opposition ever manifested, not only by the producers, but likewise, although to a less degree, by the consumers of this country.

OPPOSITION TO AMERICAN PRODUCTS.

This opposition takes on various forms, and resorts to every imaginable device in order to secure its end. The usual and most successful

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plan in operation is to circulate through the public press damaging reports as to the character of American importations; as, for example, that same authority, professional or official, had stated that the canned meats and fish are poisonous, or that American swine products contain trichinæ, from the consumption of which people frequently die from frightful maladies, to the end that the masses may be deterred, by fear, from using them. Furthermore, the local authorities, under an undue and unjust pressure coming from interested parties with whose trade these American products come into competition, lend their official influence to exact from the central government certain decrees, either preventing their introduction or so regulating and hampering the trade that it may become unprofitable.

In the question of petroleum, the same object is sought to be obtained by representing that the importation of American petroleum comes in such strong competition with their native petroleum industry in Galicia, that it should be required to pay extraordinary entry duties, and as this plan would aid in relieving the sorely pressed exchequer of the state, the project finds many advocates, while in the matter of canned fruits the present entry duty of 35 florins per 100 kilograms serves as a complete embargo against their introduction.

Furthermore, this opposition at times takes the more practical and probably successful form of opposition by the manufacturers of this country, imitating or counterfeiting, where the patent laws of the empire will admit of its being successfully and profitably done, such useful and valuable American inventions or machines as create for themselves any considerable demand on this market, as for instance the sewing-machines, certain patterns of metal stoves, small domestic utensils, and the less complicated and most easily imitated agricultural machinery. But, notwithstanding all the ingenuity and enterprise manifested in this direction, generally the original articles manufactured in the United States are preferred, and give the most satisfactory results. In the case of sewing-machines, only the delicate parts are imported from the United States; the heavier or rougher parts, made from iron or wood, are manufactured here, thus saving freight and other expenses. But in many instances the machinery of the American articles is so delicate, and requires such perfection of execution, that they cannot be successfully imitated here, probably owing to the less degree of intelligence found in the laboring class of this country compared with those of the United States, who, with great skill and success, direct and superintend the working of our complicated time and labor saving machinery; consequently we find the cheaper and more ordinary clocks, and some watches—but particularly the clocks—arriving and being introduced here by the hundreds of dozens.

In the agricultural department much has been done. Since 1873 hundreds of reapers and mowers have been sent into Hungary; the threshers usually come from England, but wind-mills, separators, and horse-rakes from the United States are generally preferred. The seed-drills and corn-planters might be made a success if consideration was taken of the value of land here, and the spaces between the rows or drills were reduced to conform to the exigencies. Instead of having them from 3 to 4 feet apart, they should be reduced to 2 feet. But the greatest hinderance against the successful employment of agricultural machinery in Hungary is the lack of intelligence on the part of those who are required to operate them. Accustomed to handle very heavy and strong machinery, not liable to be broken or disarranged, manipulated by such hands, the delicate parts of the American machines are soon

rendered worthless by carelessness or rough usage, and as generally they attempt to supply all duplicate pieces from their own native workshops, it will be readily perceived how soon a valuable machine may become worthless.

Another reason why the American reapers are not more generally adopted is owing to the opposition of the laboring classes, who, imagining that their interests are affected injuriously by these machines, refuse to bind up the grain cut by them, or charge for the binding alone the same price they would ask for cutting and binding. The combined reaper and binder cannot be used from the requirements of the case, since the grain must be cut low for the value of the straw, which necessitates the cutting off along with the grain a large quantity of green grass or weeds, which, if bound up at once with the grain, would cause it to heat and injure the quality of the grain. The desideratum is therefore a separate binder that uses cord or twine, as the millers so seriously object to the pieces of wire that are left in the grain, that self-binders employing wire are not as yet a success.

HOW TO ENLARGE AMERICAN TRADE.

The method adopted by our people to get their wares upon this market must naturally be left to each one's ingenuity. Up to the present time only individual effort has been attempted; that is, each manufacturer or export merchant has sought to find an agent to represent his specialty. This promises the greatest success, although it must of necessity be more expensive, for if an agent divides his interests among a large number of articles and houses, it would not be expected that either should receive due attention. Consequently, the various large manufacturing companies of sewing-machines, agricultural machinery, clocks, leather belting, and rubber hose have their special agents who procure orders and buy on short time, and in a few instances receive the goods on consignment. But this omits a large class of smaller objects that probably would not justify a special agent for each article. Consequently, the project of establishing depots in the central cities of each foreign nation has been suggested, where American manufactures might be exhibited at small cost, as the expenses of one agent could be borne by the many, and thus reduced to a minimum. Some serious objections arise against such a proceeding in that the agent, being under the control of no special direction, might abuse the confidence of some, or neglect the interests of others, or trying to serve many masters, he would please none. It has therefore been suggested, in order to obviate these dangers, that a given number of manufacturers in the United States, consisting of one or more branches of trade, might form themselves into a society, and as an organization might send a suitable agent to each central European market or point of trade to manage their business and common interest. It is thought that such a plan would possess all the advantages and none of the dangers attending the project of American show-rooms. This latter method is said to have been recently adopted with considerable success by certain manufacturers of Germany.

So much has been written on the subject of proper packing, and the necessity of sending only such a class of goods as will meet with the demands of the trade, that is, recognizing and conforming to the tastes of the people rather than seeking to modify and eradicate them, also that the credit and good report of our manufacturers should prevent all imposition of second-class articles on the foreign markets, that I need not reiterate them only to remind our merchants that in the domain of

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trade, as well as in morals, "One sinner destroyeth much good." Convinced of the injustice of recommending our people to embark in so serious an undertaking as the introduction of American manufactures into this empire without due reflection and examination, I have generally deferred from arousing great hopes of success in any one direction, being rather inclined to call their attention to the difficulties that stand in the way of success, knowing that much temporary outlay of money and energy must precede a legitimate success, which eventually would doubtless result from a wise and prudent introduction of many specialties of American production and manufacture in this market. Before such an effort could be recommended, those contemplating such an undertaking should come in person and examine in detail the exigencies of the Austrian market and people, or, in default of coming in person, they should send a reliable agent conversant with the language of the country, or apply to some reliable firm or individual on the spot, who might inform himself of the probabilities of success. In order to accommodate any who may desire to correspond with reliable firms in this city in regard to the subject-matter under discussion, I inclose the following names, either of whom will be happy to reply to any inquiry made, viz: Gebrüder Kohn, No. 12, Hörl Gasse and G. Cramer, No. 3, Andreas Gasse, who are at present exclusively engaged in the American trade, and whose judgment in regard to the possible introduction of additional American articles may be relied upon.

JAMES RILEY WEAVER,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Vienna, March 3, 1881.

AN AMERICAN WATER-WHEEL IN AUSTRIA—ITS SUCCESSFUL INTRODUCTION.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL WEAVER.

I have to record one more successful introduction of an American invention into this country, after having overcome the usual opposition and discouragements attending such undertakings.

Mr. S. N. Stewart, of Philadelphia, civil engineer and inventor, came to Vienna last spring for the purpose of superintending in person the construction and placing of his patent, consisting of an improved water-wheel, which he denominates a water-engine, so constructed as to utilize in a maximum degree the current of fast-flowing rivers and streams. This was accomplished by a simple and ingenious method of keeping five-tenths of the surface of the paddles in action and always vertical, whereas the ordinary floating wheel now in general use keeps only one-tenth of its surface in action, and only vertical at one point. The enormous superiority claimed by the patentee can readily be seen from an examination of the inclosed circular, but the value of the water-engine was materially enhanced by the application of a new method of transmitting the power to the shore, so that the engine floats in the river while the mill is located high and safe upon the land. It was therefore felt that in this empire, so rich in fast-flowing streams, there was an unlimited scope for utilizing the untold volume of motive power that is daily silently running to waste, which, in point of cheapness,

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surpasses every known motive force, whether it be wind, steam, or electricity.

Mr. Stewart, notwithstanding the superior excellencies of his patent, found great difficulty in awakening sufficient interest and confidence in his engine to induce the proper parties to take hold of it, but finally, having been brought to the attention of Messrs. Escher, Wyss & Co., manufacturers of hydraulic machinery at Baden, Austria, and Zurich, Switzerland, a contract was soon satisfactorily closed. The engine was subsequently constructed and placed in the Danube, close to the city, where it is now employed in running a buzz-saw, to the satisfaction of the inventor and the admiration of spectators.

The practical lesson to be learned from Mr. Stewart's experience is, that such is the opposition and difficulties to be overcome in the introduction of foreign patents in this country that those who wish to succeed must come in person and bring with them a great fund of indomitable patience and energy.

JAMES RILEY WEAVER,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Vienna, December 17, 1880.

EMIGRATION FROM GERMANY.

REPORT OF CONSUL WINSER, OF SONNEBURG.

The imperial commissioner of emigration has recently laid before the German Parliament a report which shows that during the year 1880 not less than 106,190 emigrants left Germany for the United States by way of the ports of Hamburg, Bremen, and Stettin, of which number 46,739 were dispatched from Hamburg direct to New York by steamship in sixty-seven trips. From this consular district a relatively large contingent of the aggregate number was drawn last year, and the emigration movement is still remarkably active. All indications point to the fact that the volume of emigration will be greater during the present year than it was in 1880. Already several small parties have set out on their voyage to America from this neighborhood; and the circumstance that the tide of emigration flows so early, before the rigors of winter are over, is a strong evidence in support of the current opinion that the total of seekers of work and homes in the United States during the year 1881 will be greatly in excess of the extraordinary aggregate of last year.

The imperial commissioner of emigration declares that the number of emigrants during the year 1880 was about three times as large as that in 1879; and, indeed, since regular statistics have been kept, the number last year was only exceeded by the total of the year 1872. The largest part of this emigration took place last year during the months of April, May, and October, agreeing in this respect with the experience of former years. In the early days of last April the stream of emigrants was so strong that the steamship lines found difficulty in taking the people who clamored for passage. An instance is mentioned of 400 emigrants having been detained at Bremen several days until accommodation could be provided for them, although the steamship company had dispatched two vessels on the same day, each of which was full to the uttermost capacity permitted by the regulations.

According to the imperial commissioner the cause of this unusual

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emigration is to be found, primarily, in the prosperous condition of affairs in the United States, and the possibility which is offered to an industrious craftsman or agriculturist to acquire property in a comparatively short time; or, at any rate, to secure good wages, and thus better his condition generally. In the opinion of the commissioner, the principal reason which determines the German emigrant to try his fortune in the United States is, that the majority of emigrants have friends or relatives who are comfortably settled across the water, and these urge others to come to them. Representations which are more or less true are made by those in America to their countrymen in Germany as to the demand for skilled labor in the United States, and that certain employment and good wages are offering to all who are willing to work at anything they can do. These representations are believed, and thus masses of Germans are induced to emigrate. As a general thing those who make up their minds to go to America endeavor to get a number of others from the same place or neighborhood to join them. In a very large number of cases the Germans who are settled in America send on the passage money to those whom they would like to follow them; or, rather, a passage ticket is bought in the United States and forwarded to the relative or friend in Germany. In this way, during the past year, about 16 per centum of the entire number of emigrants were supplied with passage tickets sent from America.

Among the emigrants in 1880 were a very large proportion of persons who had been owners of land in Germany, proprietors of small holdings, who had succeeded in disposing of their property with the view of emigrating. According to the statements of this class there are numbers in the same category who only await a chance to sell their small possessions at a fair price before setting out for what they believe to be the promised land. Relatively, in comparison with former years, a great number of persons have emigrated who seemed to be living at home in by no means unfavorable pecuniary circumstances.

The report of the imperial commissioner of emigration, however, utterly fails to mention the chief cause of the extraordinary emigration to the United States, a cause which is no secret, as it is spoken about openly, viz: The general discontent among the working classes at their condition, the shape which the internal affairs of the country have assumed, and the constantly-increasing burdens of taxation for military and other purposes.

The commissioner alludes to the fact that the emigration officials at New York had made complaints during the year against several German steamship captains for carrying more passengers than the regulations permitted. These complaints were proved to be unfounded. No matter how much such charges may be justified as against the passenger vessels of other nations, the commissioner asserts that no emigrant ship can leave a German port with more passengers on board than she is entitled to carry. Should, however, German vessels take on a surplus of passengers when they touch at Havre or at Southampton that would be a matter beyond his control. One such instance is cited as having occurred during the year, that of the German sailing vessel Christiania.

The revision and inspection of all German emigrant ships, with regard to their accommodations, supply of provisions, and everything conducing to the welfare of the passengers on the voyage, as well as the supervision of emigrant lodging-houses, had been the personal work of the imperial commissioner, so far as this labor could be carried on at the three German seaports, Hamburg, Bremen, and Stettin, at the same time, and he had required a strict compliance with every regulation for

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the protection of emigrant passengers. Especial pains had been taken with regard to provisions, and only such of the best quality passed inspection. In the interest of emigrants the commissioner had required in numerous cases that improvements should be made on board ships in various matters of detail. Large numbers of complaints, many of them unfounded, against agents and ship-owners, had been made by emigrant passengers during the year. These complaints had all been duly investigated, and any real grievances had been rectified. In one instance an emigrant passenger agent was required to pay the expenses of a party of Austrian emigrants back to their homes, they having found themselves at Hamburg with insufficient money to proceed to the United States, and being forwarded by the agent only as far as England, whence they were returned to Hamburg in a destitute condition.

The report of the imperial commissioner of emigration certainly gives much food for earnest thought to the ruling powers of Germany.

H. J. WINSER, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Sonneberg, March 9, 1881.

GERMAN SYSTEM OF SCHOOLS AND UNIVERSITY.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL LEE.

Referring to my previous dispatch,* having reference to the German system of schools and universities, I beg to invite the attention of the Department to the fact that a very interesting debate has taken place in the Prussian House of Deputies (Landtag), during the past week, in reference to some of the principal subjects referred to in the inclosure accompanying that dispatch. In this discussion the minister of public instruction, Herr von Puttkamer, and the eminent scientist, Professor Virchow, took a leading part.

The debate related mainly to the alleged defects in the existing system of public instruction, and the changes therein which are proposed. A translation of the various speeches made would be somewhat voluminous, and inasmuch as the debate took place at Berlin it seems proper that in my references to it I should confine myself to that which more particularly pertains to this jurisdiction. I have therefore prepared, and herewith forward a translation of an editoral article relating to the discussion, which appeared in the Daily Frankfurter Zeitung of December 15.

In this editorial the principal points of the discussion are reviewed, and some very interesting facts pertaining to the German school and university system are mentioned. It may be further stated that the editorial and also the speech of Professor Virchow, to which it refers, are confirmatory of the views taken in these dispatches, both as to the school and the civil-service system of Germany. The editorial is also illustrative of the current opinion and discussion on these subjects. A memorandum copy of the inclosure with my No. 239 is herewith forwarded for the convenience of the Department in case the publication of the same should be deemed expedient.

ALFRED E. LEE,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Frankfort-on-the-Main, December 18, 1880.

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GERMAN SCHOOLS.

[From the Daily Frankfurter Zeitung of December 15, 1880—morning edition.]

FRANKFORT, *December* 14.

On slight occasion given by Herr Reichensperger, Herr von Puttkamer delivered yesterday a very long and apparently a very carefully prepared speech. Herr Reichensperger had only casually mentioned the current complaints as to the excessive tasks exacted from scholars in our higher schools, and had done this in a connection indicating that he did not admit the justification of those complaints. Nevertheless the minister of public instruction exerted himself to defend an institution which nobody had attacked. It does not usually happen that at the discussion of the budget, a minister brings the province of the same into question that he may the more effectually defend it, and an exculpatory speech like that of Herr Puttkamer would of itself make the impression of an accusation, did one not know that the ministers are usually only too glad if certain things are not referred to. For ourselves, we are the last to find fault if the ministers address themselves to the discussion of public concerns, but while, on the other hand, they refuse to recognize any obligation to give an account of such concerns, one must consider Herr Puttkamer's spontaneous deliverance as singularly striking, and one can scarcely go amiss if he gathers therefrom that there is something wrong in the Prussian system of higher instruction.

Since some years, in fact, there has been much public complaint that in our higher schools the scholars have been overtasked with home study. In 1875 Minister Falk issued a circular touching this matter, which, as well on account of its tone as on account of the remedial measures which it invoked, excited much attention. The school directors were charged in this circular to have a care that the home studies should be so appointed for the various classes that an overtaxing of the scholars might not take place, and parents were summoned in each locality to make their complaints against the excessive exactions of the school effectual. The single result of this circular was that the amount of home study was mechanically fixed for every class; that this plan was communicated to the provincial school authorities, and that for the rest all remained as before. As a consequence of the Falk circular, it was expected among teachers that an increasing opposition would be made by both scholars and parents against the just demands of school discipline. This apprehension appears to have been scarcely anywhere realized to the extent that was anticipated; on the contrary scarcely any doubt can rest with well-informed persons that for all practical purposes the circular was as ineffectual, and left as little trace, as a stone cast into the water.

Complaints did not cease, but confined themselves more to private circles, and that for a very natural reason. Not for the first time has the opinion gained currency lately that the arrangement of our system of higher instruction is in striking contradiction with the old maxim, *mens sana in corpore sano*. This complaint is already more than four decades old, and yet during this long period almost nothing has been done by way of correcting the evil. In the year 1836 a celebrated physician (Karl Ignaz Lorinser) published a document entitled "Protection of Health in Schools." The neglect of physical culture in the gymnasia, and the unsatisfactory method of instruction were incisively attacked in this publication, which caused a violent conflict of opinion between the gymnasia pedagogues on the one side and the physicians on the other. The Prussian ministry of public instruction was not unaffected by this agitation, and it therefore decreed the reintroduction of the turning (physical) exercises in the gymnasia, besides causing the preparation of an essay (by Johannes Schultze) concerning the improvement of gymnasial instruction, which treatise is still highly considered among professional people. Since that time the manner of instruction in the gymnasia has not been materially changed, and no organic improvement has been realized. On the contrary the additions which have been made to the old structure seem rather to have aggravated difficulties than to have relieved them.

It has come to pass, therefore, that those most nearly interested have almost abandoned hope of an essential remedy for their complaints. At the same time the ministry of public instruction has been accustomed to consider the bringers of complaints as querulous fault-finders, and the queue of ancient pedagogy must be very violently jerked if any impression is to be made upon its wearer. The person who seems to have been most successful, lately, in producing such an impression is a Brunswick physician to the insane, named Dr. Hasse. At the conference of physicians who treat insanity, held at Eisenach this year, Dr. Hasse declared that for some time past the gymnasia have contributed a strikingly increased percentage to the number of insane persons, and gave as a reason for this, the excessive tasks exacted of the youth at school. This deliverence has impelled the minister of public instruction to make an investigation in the various institutions for the insane. As the minister declared in the House of Deputies yesterday, this inquiry has really produced no result. Of the sixteen physicians who have given their opinions, no one has directly confirmed the declarations of Dr. Hasse. Most of them have accused their Brunswick colleague of

an inadmissible scientific generalization of isolated cases, and only two have recognized the possibility of a connection between mental disturbance and excessive school tasks. The statistical data which accompany these opinions do not prove that of the insane persons from fifteen to twenty years of age any considerable percentage consists of scholars from the gymnasia.

One may perceive that with this result, the validity of which Professor Virchow afterwards questioned, the minister did not quiet himself, but that he rather considered the duty still incumbent upon him to examine from the standpoint of pure practical pedagogy whether a certain excessiveness of school tasks did not exist. He acquiesces in this inquiry, but derives from it only the old conclusion that the complaints of overtasking are groundless, and concludes with a panegyric on the efficiency of the gymnasial directories and provincial school committees, and also with an invitation to parents everywhere to address themselves confidently to these official representatives of the schools whenever a different distribution of tasks is desired.

Against all this we place the following: It is a fact that (as Deputy Eckardstein remarked yesterday) in the middle classes of the gymnasia and realschulen (why the minister omitted the latter is not clear) 20 to 33⅓ per cent. of the scholars do not master within the year the tasks that are set for them. It is a further fact that *in prima* there is a rarity of scholars who have gone through all the classes in the prescribed time. It is proven by medical testimony that the average state of health which prevails in the gymnasia and realschulen is much worse than that of youth of corresponding age who are otherwise occupied. An educational institution of which it must be confessed that at least five-sixths of its pupils are not able to master its course of instruction in the required time, and that a great part of its scholars must, on account of its existing arrangements, suffer injury to their health is worthy to be declared bankrupt. This conclusion sounds hard, but it must eventually be drawn and, in dry words, be spoken, if old lazy self-sufficiency among the parties interested shall not do further injury to the nation.

Herr Puttkamer seems to have labored with the inquiry, why it happens that so great a number of scholars are not able to answer to the demands upon them which are accepted as normal? He has answered this inquiry in a manner against which we must decidedly protest. He said, "Notoriously boys are now brought from all classes of society to the higher schools who neither in mental endowments nor in physical strength are equal to the tasks which the schools must demand of them. Moreover a great number of people from the lower classes entertain the morbid fancy that their sons must go to the higher schools although the necessary home preparations are not to be had, and not even, not to speak too coarsely, the possibility of sufficient physical nourishment as a minimum compensation for the mental tasks of the school. It would not contribute to the welfare of the nation if the educational institutions should place themselves on the level of this unseemly class of youth, and renounce the creation of an aristocracy of mental culture."

This is the most cavalier (snobbish) sentiment we have read lately except the recent speech of Bismarck-Schönhausen in the House of Deputies. So far as concerns the remark that many of the scholars are not mentally and physically equal to the demands of the higher schools, we have to say that the schools should be graded to suit the average scholar, and not to suit exceptional talent. That the gates to higher culture shall be closed to the gymnasiasts from the "lower classes," is an assumption in sharp contradiction with the legally recognized equality of all citizens of the State. It may also be remarked here that according to the experience of unprejudiced educators, out of those very classes of the people which Herr von Puttkamer hopes to see excluded from higher education come the most capable, the most industrious, and the most orderly scholars. The minister, in the further course of his speech, cast a very ungracious side glance on those *prima* students who, by means of the adjunct instruction which they give to their fellows in the lower classes, obtain a part of their maintenance, yet every director of a gymnasia can confirm the statement that this relation, which the minister condemns, is for both parties to it a blessing.

The real drawback to our higher schools was not mentioned by the minister, and consists of the one-year volunteers from the wealthy classes, whose need of education is bounded by a certificate of military qualification. On the other hand, the drawback does not consist of those pupils from the lower classes who, through untold difficulties struggle after a higher culture and a better condition. Woe to the people whose higher conditions are comprehended in Herr von Puttkamer's much desired "aristocracy of culture" and of money. To the lot of such a people will fall irremediable degeneracy, since it excludes itself from the sources of physical, mental, and moral rejuvenation furnished by the uncorrupted elements of society.

The discussion as to the overtaxing of our youth in the schools was brought no nearer to its termination by yesterday's discussion. The old complaints will continue to be repeated, and for a long time to come we shall not escape the consolations and excuses of the green table, unless all parties concerned—parents, teachers, and university professors—shall co-operate in forcing that reform of our system of higher instruction which has unfortunately been already so long postponed.

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AMERICAN BEER IN GREAT BRITAIN.

REPORT BY CONSUL JONES, OF NEWCASTLE.

I have the honor to submit some observations and statistics relevant to the beer traffic in this country, with a view to inducing our brewers and exporters to establish in the United Kingdom a trade in lager beer.

The consumption of malt liquors is very large in this country. Up to the present time, because government duty was hitherto paid upon malt, the exact quantity used could not be accurately ascertained. Duty was paid upon 50,341,799 bushels of malt during the year ending March 31, 1880. It is estimated that two bushels of malt are required to make a barrel of beer; therefore, the products of last year may be stated at 25,170,899 barrels.

This quantity includes every variety and strength of ale and beer, stout and porter. Upon the principle which governs other branches of manufacture, different localities are noted for special marks of ales, beers, &c. Edinburgh is considered the leading town in the production of strong ales. London and Dublin monopolize the porter and stout trade, while the superior lighter ales and beers, such as India pale ale, and bitter beer, are for the most part brewed at Burton upon Trent. But nearly every town in the kingdom contains one brewery, or more, where malt liquor, in every degree of quality is made.

But the tendency of the beer-drinking community is decidedly toward the lighter class article—the bitter beer, which is manufactured by Bass, and other wealthy brewers, of excellent quality and immense quantities. This is a favorite beverage, especially among the middle and upper classes. It is very generally used at meals; medical men prescribe it as a tonic to invalids; it shares the popularity with stout and porter during the summer season; and it is with this brand that our American lager beer would come into competition.

Last summer I became possessed of several dozens of bottled lager beer. I distributed most of it among my friends and their report was most favorable. They uniformly pronounced it superior to any British made beer in lightness, sparkling qualities, and entire freedom from sediment. Some of these gentlemen have since imported lager beer for their private use on their own account. The positive enthusiasm with which those who had tried it spoke of our western beverage induced me to mention the subject to an enterprising Englishman engaged in importing American canned goods. He at once made inquiries concerning the trade; and within a short time he called upon me and reported that the price of lager beer was too high for successful competition with British light beer, and that, therefore, he did not feel warranted in giving the trade a trial.

Bitter beer is sold at 60*s.* less 10 per cent. per barrel, and at 2*s.* 6*d.* per dozen pint bottles wholesale, and at 65*s.* per barrel, and at 3*s.* 6*d.* per dozen pint bottles, retail. The usual price per single bottle is 4*d.*; 2*d.* is the ordinary price of a single glass of draught ale or beer, though it is occasionally sold at 1½*d.* per single glass. Please remember that bottled beer is sold in this country less the price of the bottle, which is either replaced when the beer is delivered, or returned when empty. Without going into particulars, I may mention that the prices quoted by American brewers—plus the freight to Newcastle—made the cost of lager

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beer about twice that of bitter beer. The trade cannot well be introduced under such circumstances.

I think it may fairly be assumed that the cost of production is less, on the whole, to our American brewers than to those of the United Kingdom. While labor is more costly, both malt and hops are cheaper in Milwaukee than at Burton-upon-Trent; and the interest upon capital invested in breweries must be less, because of the extravagant price of real property in this country. I conclude that lager beer is placed at a disadvantage in the markets of this country: 1st, by the cost of transportation; and 2d, by the cost of bottles. The question of freight I leave to the exporter and carrier who have a common interest in creating a new export trade.

But concerning the bottles I wish to say a word. I do not mean to imply that the American-made bottle costs more than that used by English brewers; upon that point I am ignorant. What I wish to convey is this: The cost of each bottle full of lager beer is enhanced and "handicapped" by the cost of the bottle itself—the empty bottle. The bottle is different in form, size, and color to that used by brewers and dealers in this country; therefore, the American bottle cannot take the place of that made in England—will not be taken in exchange for it. The American bottle is neat and well suited for its purpose, *at home;* but it is comparatively useless in this market where it can neither be sold nor exchanged. Assuming that lager beer bottles could be returned to the exporters as "empties" at reduced freight rates, even then the process is attended by extra cost and trouble.

As a remedy for this difficulty I beg to suggest that lager beer intended for the United Kingdom be put up in bottles similar or identical to those in general use by the beer trade of this country in order that they may be taken in exchange for them and that the price of the contents may thereby be reduced. Different brewers have not materially different bottles; therefore the bottles are interchangeable and no difficulty is raised upon that point—the beer and brewer are protected by the label. I am satisfied that no kind of objection would be, or reasonably could be, raised by wholesale beer dealers to taking American-made bottles, which originally contained lager beer, instead of or as substitutes for the British bottles.

Let our beer once become generally known and it would naturally be imported in barrels, in cool railway cars, and suitable compartments in steamers that the profits of the importer might be increased. Under those conditions, also, I think the commonalty or similarity of bottles would be found to lessen trouble, save time and labor, and facilitate trade.

In order to establish this commerce our lager beer exporters should appoint agents of well known respectability in every large town in the United Kingdom. They should sell the beer at the lowest possible price until its superior quality became known. I am convinced that if once fairly introduced American lager beer would command a very large sale in the United Kingdom, especially during the summer months. Moreover, people who consider English beer "too heavy" as an ordinary beverage would buy it for general family use.

As connected with the beer-trade question I have the honor to add tables compiled chiefly from the inland revenue report for 1880, as follows:

I. Table showing the quantities of spirits, malt, and sugar used for brewing, together with the number of licenses in the United Kingdom during the years ending March 31, 1879 and 1880.

II. Table showing the amount of duty charged on spirits, malt,

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licenses, and sugar used in brewing, for the years ending March 31, 1879 and 1880.

III. Table showing the net receipts of duties upon spirits, malt, and sugar used by brewers during the five years ending March 31, 1880.

IV. Table giving details of licenses of manufacturers and dealers in excisable liquors during the year ending March 31, 1880.

V. Table showing the price, at wholesale and retail, of the leading brands of ale, beer, and porter on the 8th of March, 1881.

VI. Table showing the number of dealers in beer in Newcastle-on-Tyne and adjoining towns on January 1, 1881.

EVAN R. JONES,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Newcastle-upon-Tyne, March 8, 1881.

I.—*Account of the quantities of articles charged with duty in England, Scotland, and Ireland, respectively, for the years ended March* 31, 1879 *and* 1880.

YEAR ENDED MARCH 31, 1879.

Articles.	England.	Scotland.	Ireland.	United Kingdom.
Spirits.....gallons..	13, 508, 129	8, 476, 561	7, 811, 444	29, 796, 134
Malt*.....bushels..	51, 570, 675	3, 104, 550	3, 360, 930	58, 036, 155
Licenses (all kinds).....number..	2, 540, 377	248, 322	101, 265	2, 889, 964
Sugar (used in brewing).....cwts..	1, 042, 269	7, 018	52, 649	1, 101, 936

YEAR ENDED MARCH 31, 1880.

Articles.	England.	Scotland.	Ireland.	United Kingdom.
Spirits.....gallons..	13, 249, 891	8, 341. 959	6, 927, 871	28, 219. 721
Malt*.....bushels..	44, 873, 174	2, 613, 823	2, 854, 802	50, 341. 799
Licenses (all kinds).....number..	2, 358, 927	230, 136	99. 149	2, 688, 212
Sugar (used in brewing).....cwts..	1, 092, 091	7, 101	37, 241	1, 136, 433

* It is estimated that two bushels are required to produce one barrel of beer.

II.—*Amount of duty charged on articles specified in England, Scotland, and Ireland, respectively, for the years ended March* 31, 1879 *and* 1880.

YEAR ENDED MARCH 31, 1879.

Duties.	England.	Scotland.	Ireland.	United Kingdom.
Spirits.....	£6, 754, 059	£4, 238. 281	£3, 905, 717	£14, 898. 057
Malt.....	6, 994, 375	420, 191	455, 826	7, 870, 392
Licenses (all kinds).....	3, 134, 184	367, 195	195, 820	3, 647, 709
Sugar (used in brewing).....	599, 305	4, 035	30, 273	633, 613

YEAR ENDED MARCH 31, 1880.

Duties.	England.	Scotland.	Ireland.	United Kingdom.
Spirits.....	£6, 624, 946	£4, 020, 979	£3, 463, 940	£14, 109, 865
Malt	6, 086, 248	353, 710	387, 182	6, 827, 140
Licenses (all kinds).....	3, 019, 290	306, 841	213, 404	3, 539, 535
Sugar (used in brewing).....	627, 952	4, 083	21, 414	653, 449

III.—*Account of the net receipts of the duties of excise on spirits, malt, and sugar, used by brewers, during the five years ended March* 31, 1880.

FIVE YEARS ENDED MARCH 31, 1880.

	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.
Spirits:					
England	£6 575, 151	£6, 411, 867	£6, 593, 552	£6, 475, 128	£6, 346, 793
Scotland	4, 397, 997	4, 391, 120	4, 444, 027	4, 035, 853	3, 830, 660
Ireland	4, 181, 179	4, 070, 178	4, 096, 342	3, 895, 699	3, 454, 332
United Kingdom	15, 154, 327	14, 873, 165	15, 133, 921	14, 406, 690	13, 631, 785
Malt:					
Englad	6, 888, 776	7, 220, 085	6, 838, 843	6, 885, 359	6, 023, 204
Scotland	343, 480	368, 343	372, 864	398, 229	329, 533
Ireland	430, 425	451, 950	409, 841	455, 919	381, 542
United Kingdom	7, 654, 681	8, 040, 378	7, 721, 548	7, 739, 507	6, 732, 279
Sugar (used by brewers):					
England	473, 251	452, 795	494, 759	605, 552	602, 766
Scotland	3, 090	3, 164	3, 387	4, 216	3, 771
Ireland	30, 449	31, 804	28, 062	30, 927	21, 869
United Kingdom	506, 790	487, 763	526, 208	640, 695	628, 406

IV.—*Detail of licenses on manufacturers, dealers in, and retailers of excisable liquors used as beverage, for the year ended March* 31, 1880.

Classes of dealers.	England.	Scotland.	Ireland.	United Kingdom.	Amount of duty charged.	Total amount of duty charged.
	Number.	*Number.*	*Number.*	*Number.*		
Dealers in beer	8, 697	153	645	9, 495	£33, 974	
Dealers in beer, additional licenses to retail	5, 445	.....	484	5, 929	7, 165	
Dealers in spirits	7, 997	474	610	9, 081	98, 364	
Dealers in spirits, additional licenses to retail	5, 821	.....	3	5, 824	19, 109	
Dealers in wine	4, 334	138	141	4, 813	52, 455	
						£211, 067
Retailers of beer	69, 805	585	16, 668	87, 058	212, 059	
Retailers of beer, occasional licenses	1, 430	.....	.....	1, 430	100	
Retailers of spirits	69, 112	11, 686	16, 493	97, 291	721, 407	
Retailers of spirits, occasional licenses	26, 545	1, 950	5, 778	34, 273	5, 437	
Retailers in wine	41, 757	6, 447	10, 236	58, 440	127, 881	
Retailers in wine, occasional licenses	626	.....	7	633	40	
						1, 066, 924
Retailers of beer and cider	49, 597	231	.....	49, 828	137, 721	
Retailers of wine (to be consumed off the premises)	3, 895	3, 156	313	7, 364	17, 399	
Retailers of beer, &c., on board packet-boats	253	124	64	441	471	
Retailers of spirits (grocers), Ireland	.....	.....	516	516	5, 974	
Retailers of wine in refreshment houses	3, 845	.....	54	3, 899	8, 343	
Sweets, makers and dealers	54	8	2	64	349	
Sweets, retailers	3, 579	66	30	3, 675	4, 082	
						174, 739
Refreshment houses	10, 538	.....	148	10, 686	9, 592	
Distillers and rectifiers	126	141	68	335	3, 567	
Brewers	23, 035	216	87	23, 338	405, 310	
Maltsters	3, 398	316	121	3, 835	13, 305	
Malt roasters and dealers in roasted malt	24	2	6	32	483	
						432, 257
Total	339, 113	25, 693	52, 474	418, 270	.....	1, 884, 987

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V.—*Prices of ale and beer at wholesale and retail in the United Kingdom, March 8, 1881.*

Brands.	Wholesale price per barrel of 36 gallons each.	Retail price per barrel of 36 gallons.	Wholesale price per one dozen pint bottles.	Retail price per one dozen pint bottles.
	s.	*s.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*
Bass' Best Bitter	*60	65	2 6	3 6
Edinburgh India pale ale	54	60	.....	.....
Reid's Newcastle mild ales	60	65	.....	.....
8 *d.*	45	45	.....	.....
6 *d.*				

*Less ten per cent.

VI.—*Table showing the number of dealers in beer in Newcastle-on-Tyne and adjoining towns on January 1, 1881.*

Towns.	No. of beer dealers.
Newcastle-on-Tyne	733
Gateshead-on-Tyne	206
Sunderland	517
North Shields	200
South Shields	222
Jarrow	56
Total	1,934

OLEOMARGARINE IN ENGLAND—AN INJURY TO AMERICAN BUTTER.

REPORT BY MINISTER LOWELL.

I have the honor to inclose herewith an extract from the Times containing the report of a debate which took place in the House of Commons on April 1, upon the importation of American substitutes for butter into Great Britain.

J. R. LOWELL,
Minister.

LEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES,
London, April 5, 1881.

[From the London Times, April 2, 1881.]

FOREIGN SUBSTITUTES FOR BUTTER.

On the order of the day for going into committee of supply,

Sir H. MAXWELL called attention to the effects of the unrestricted importation from the United States of various spurious compounds resembling butter, which, he said, exposed British dairy farmers to an unfair competition, and consumers to imposition. He did not, he added, introduce the subject to the notice of the House in the interests of any particular class of the community, though it was one in which his constituents were largely concerned, and all he asked for was that the regulations which

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were at present applied to our home trade—and which provided for the inspection of milk *in transitu* between the purveyor and the purchaser—should be brought to bear on the foreign producer. It had been long known that the butter imported from America was not altogether of a genuine character. The trade began, he believed, about the time of the American civil war, and since then adulteration had gone on to a great extent, and the manufacture of the spurious article was conducted with considerable ingenuity and skill. Eventually, at the instance of the American farmers themselves the American Legislature passed a law rendering the export illegal except under certain conditions. That law had, however, been evaded. The brands which it was said must be placed on casks of oleomargarine were in many cases removed from the casks, and the names of well-known firms of butter makers were substituted in their stead. The penalty to which persons exporting oleomargarine without using the requisite brands were liable was so slight that many thought it worth while to run the risk of incurring it. It was difficult for a chemist or expert to detect the presence of oleomargarine in butter. A gentleman engaged in the butter trade in Glasgow had told him that he had frequently inspected hundreds of casks of American butter, and that on the average forty out of every hundred were not filled with genuine butter. There was in this country an enormous consumption of oleomargarine. From America, in 1879, 274,000 pounds were exported for Glasgow; but in nine months of the year 1880 nearly 1,500,000 pounds were imported into that town. He wanted to know what became of this stuff when it reached this country. Was it sold as butterine or oleomargarine, or was it sold as a legitimate and nutritive article of food? It was a singular fact that these compounds were never advertised. This absence of advertisement showed, he thought, that the compounds were not sold under distinctive names, but as genuine butter. Their sale was encouraged by the conditions of the carrying traffic of this country. Oleomargarine could be brought from New York to London at the same cost as that which was necessary for the carriage of genuine butter from Liverpool to London. It might be said that if we were to insist upon oleomargarine and butterine being sold under their proper names, nobody would buy them. Well, he was of opinion that the House need not show any tenderness for spurious and base articles which were sold under false names. (Hear, hear.) He would, perhaps, be told that the matter could be dealt with under the sale of food and drugs act. But in reality the case could not be thus met, as the sixth section of the act could not be efficiently carried out. It might be contended that oleomargarine was not in itself an unwholesome compound. But what guarantee was there of the purity of the sources from which the fat contained in that compound was drawn? (Hear, hear.) So great was the demand for oleomargarine in America that sufficient fat to supply the trade could not be obtained from proper sources. He feared that some of the fat came from diseased animals. The manufacture of oleomargarine had been commenced in this country, as was shown in a recent trial at Birkenhead. He did not object to the manufacture of an economical substitute for butter, but he thought it ought to be sold under its proper name. There were two other compounds which were of quite a different nature. One was prepared from the fat of pigs—not cooked fat, but raw fat. Moreover, if it was heated above 96° it was spoilt for the purpose for which it was intended. Consequently the heat was not sufficient to destroy animal life. Honorable members would, no doubt, remember a letter from Philadelphia which appeared in the papers, in which it was stated that 700,000 swine had died of hog cholera. In Chicago several persons had been killed, and a farmer had died whose skull was found to be full of trichinæ. The letter went on to say that trichinæ might be conveyed in butter and cheese. What was called winter cholera was also prevalent in Chicago, which was attributed to those adulterated articles which went under the name of butter. The other substance to which he had referred was, he believed, not actually poisonous. It was made from soapstone or talc. There was, he was informed, no legitimate use for that substance. He thought the importation of these spurious kinds of butter ought to be prohibited, at least unless they bore their proper names. They came not only from the United States, but also from France and other countries. The English farmer would defy competition if he had a fair field; but he did not think they ought to be exposed to a competition of that character. The honorable member concluded by moving "That it is desirable that such steps shall be taken by the legislature as will insure, as far as possible, that such of these compounds as are harmless shall only be sold under distinctive names, and that the importation and sale of those which are hurtful or dangerous to health be prohibited altogether."

Mr. A. Moore seconded the motion. The question brought before the House by his honorable friend was one of great importance. From three districts alone in Ireland 800,000 casks of butter were annually imported into this country, at an average price of £3 10*s.* per cask. The best butter always commanded a market; but the competition of spurious compounds operated hardly on the poor Irish farmer who could not produce the best kinds of butter. Moreover, these compounds were sold at a price far above their value. He had himself bought them at 1*s.* a pound. Thus, a great hardship was inflicted on the working man. There was no doubt, too, that the

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importation of these substances was largely on the increase. In 1869 there were imported from the United States 1,000,000 pounds of butter. In 1879, 38,000,000 pounds were imported of spurious or genuine butter. It could not be believed that the importation of genuine butter had increased 38 fold in that short period. He knew of cases where butterine and genuine butter were sold on the same counter, there being nothing whatever to tell the purchaser the difference. The price of the butter was 1*s.* 4*d.* a pound, and of the other 1*s.* a pound. He should now tell the House the cost of the latter. A friend of his in the butter trade in Ireland thought he would draw one of these butterine merchants, and he wrote to him. He would give the butterine merchant's name, but he did not desire to give him an advertisement; he resided in the East end. The price at which the butterine was offered was 50*s.* a cwt.—that was 5½*d.* a pound. For this stuff the working people were charged 1*s.* a pound. He held that this was simple robbery (cheers), and the law ought to step in and declare that if this spurious compound was offered for sale it must be offered openly and its nature proclaimed. The term butterine ought to be done away with. (Hear, hear.) It was most misleading. It induced poor people to think that the compound had something to do with butter, whereas it had nothing whatever to do with genuine butter. In the letter to which he had referred—and he drew the attention of Irish members to the point—this remark occurred: "If you wish to have it"—the spurious mixture—"packed in Irish firkins we think we could manage it." It was time the government stepped in to remedy the evil complained of.

Mr. BROWN said the American Government had found a difficulty in carrying out laws which they had made to put down the imposition complained of. He had been a member of a select committee which sat in 1875 to inquire into the law relating to the sale of food and drugs. Previously there had been a considerable stir in the country in regard to the fraudulent sale of articles of food and drugs, and that led to the passing in 1872 of the adulteration of food and drugs act. That act, having been in operation for three or four years, was found to have worked most grievous and great injustice, and a committee was appointed in 1875 to take into consideration the whole of the law relating to that subject. In 1875 the sale of food and drugs act was passed, and by clause 6 of that act it was provided that no person should sell to the prejudice of the purchaser any article of food or drugs which was not in its nature, substance, or quality the article demanded by such purchaser, under a penalty of £20. Now, anybody who sold butterine or oleomargarine under the name of butter sold an article which in substance, quality, or nature was not the article demanded by the purchaser; and therefore, if anybody went to a shop to buy butter and was served with butterine or oleomargarine instead, the seller was liable to a penalty of £20. The act also provided for the appointment of skilled analysts in every county and borough in England and Ireland, by whom samples of articles could be examined; and there were officers to watch whether the law was carried out or not. By such means the legislature have done a great deal to check the improper adulteration of food and drugs; and it was scarcely possible, unless they prohibited the sale of those articles altogether, to go any further. He understood that the honorable baronet, by his resolution, did not propose altogether to prohibit the sale of butterine and oleomargarine, provided they were sold under their proper names. The whole question was one of considerable difficulty, and he could not well see how they were to amend the law or to make it stronger than it was at present without going the length of total prohibition, and it was hardly desirable to go so far as that in the case of articles which were not hurtful to health and were expressly sold under their true names. The act of 1872 had to be repealed after three years' working. What the act of 1875 practically laid down was the principle that nothing should be sold under a false name and character. What, therefore, was sold as butter must be butter, and if it was butterine the purchaser must be expressly told that the article was a compound. In those circumstances, he hoped that the honorable baronet would not press his resolution to a division, but rest content with the discussion he had raised, which might do some good in warning the public. (Hear, hear.)

Mr. BIDDELL observed that the honorable baronet had by introducing this question done good service to the poorer classes in this country. Hardly a day passed without the prosecution of some dairy proprietor for mixing water with the milk he sold. But that was an innocent transaction compared with the selling of adulterated butter, which, as they had heard, was often made of raw and bad pork. He trusted that, in the interests of the poorest class of butter consumers, the government would accept the resolution of the honorable baronet.

Mr. O'SULLIVAN also supported the resolution. All that was asked for was that the consumer should be protected from fraud. The article referred to which was sold as butter was a fraudulent article, and it affected injuriously not only the buyer of it, but the farmers of the United Kingdom. He did not object to wholesome food being imported and sold at a low rate, but for the importation of the product in question there could be no excuse. He had drawn attention some time since to the sale of silent spirit as genuine whisky, but the government of the day protected the persons

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who sold the silent spirit in working out their fraud. The question of free trade did not enter into this matter. It was not trade that was protected, it was fraud that was shielded.

Colonel COLTHURST joined the honorable members who supported the resolution in appealing to Her Majesty's Government to accept it. The honorable member for Wenlock, in opposing the resolution, had referred to the act of 1875; but, in spite of the provisions of that act, spurious substances were, as they saw, sold as butter. What they asked the government to do was to take action through the board of trade and the local government board to prevent spurious and injurious articles being imported. He was not opposed to fair competition, but this was most unfair competition. He therefore hoped the government would at least promise them, if not a select committee, at least a departmental inquiry, with a view to see how far the act of 1875 had achieved the object for which it had been passed.

Mr. ARNOLD said the honorable baronet who introduced the subject had adopted rather a protectionist view of this matter. He had himself seen in Holland and elsewhere oleomargarine butter being manufactured, and the processes were not such as should make any one unwilling that the product should form part of the food of the people. They did, he believed, constitute an article of food which was of very considerable value. He thought that what was necessary to be done might be accomplished by amending the public health act of 1875, which did not enumerate the article butter among the species of food to which the act applied. He had received a letter from the superintendent of the Manchester and Salford markets, in which he said:

"In 1875 I seized 13 tubs of butter at a wholesale confectioner's bakery. It was the most filthy stuff imaginable, stunk fearfully, and was of many colors. It was admitted for the defense, when I brought the owner before the magistrates, that the stuff was intended for use as food, but that as it was butter, and butter did not come under the heads mentioned in the act, the case must be dismissed, and the butter returned to the owner. The case was dismissed, the butter was returned to the owner, and I know that it was by him used in his pastry. Tons of this stuff is used by many of the wholesale confectioners in all the large towns. I believe it consists of the scrapings of butter from the grocers' shops, mixed with the inevitable dirt, and such as has become rancid, and altogether too bad to be used in the ordinary way. As he had said, an amendment of the public health act, which made the penal provisions of the law applicable to foods of every description, would meet the case."

Mr. GREGORY supported the motion on the ground that it would be in the interest alike of the producers and the consumers that all articles of food sold should be sold under their proper names. He did not object to the importation and sale of these articles sold as butter as long as they were of pure manufacture, but those who bought them ought to be in the position of knowing what it was they bought.

Mr. PLAYFAIR thought the subject one of great importance and interest, particularly to the class of dairy farmers, who were naturally alarmed at the increased import of foreign butters, an increase which was mainly due to the fact that the production in this country had not increased in proportion to the consumption. From Holland the export of butter had greatly increased, and the amount of fat imported into that country was very much in proportion to that increase. New York alone sent upwards of 12,000,000 pounds of oleomargarine to Holland, and that, no doubt, had come back to us mixed with real butter in large quantities. There were in America thirteen establishments for the manufacture of oleomargarine and its congeners on a very large scale, and the export just now of professed oleomargarine from New York was half the value of all the butter exported, the value of the butter in 1880 being $5,170,000 and of professed oleomargarine $2,581,000. Now, if that article came into competition with butter under its proper name no one would have a right to object. Good butter would never be driven out of the market by oleomargarine, because the latter had not the fine flavor of the former, but bad butter certainly would. He hoped, therefore, the result of the discussion would be to teach the farmer that he had no chance of competing successfully with good oleomargarine with bad butter. Good butter contained from twelve to sixteen parts of water and from two to five of fat, but inferior kinds contained from twenty to twenty-five parts of water. Bad butter was, therefore, a fraud upon the poor, and oleomargarine would sooner or later drive it from the market. With that part of the resolution which said that it was desirable that every article should be sold under its proper name, he heartily concurred. There was, he might add, scarcely anything more injurious to health than bad oleomargarine or bad butter. Both were abominations, but as a general rule the former did not become so readily rancid as the latter. He did not think that oleomargarine would ever supplant good butter, but he thought that good oleomargarine at 1*s.* a pound was a great deal better and cheaper than bad butter at 1*s.* 4*d.* a pound (Hear.) The resolution asked the legislature, which he supposed meant the executive, to take care that oleomargarine should be sold as oleomargarine, and should not be sold as butter. He entirely agreed with that, but how were they to do it? He was sure that no ordinary chemist could tell how much oleomargarine and how much butter were in a sample of butter. That

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was not yet within the province of science. Experts might find out from the flavor and the taste, but scientific men would not be able to do it. He was afraid that farmers must be satisfied to meet this competition. Good farmers thoroughly protected themselves already, and imperfect farmers might do so by taking great care in packing their butter and sending it to market. Cheap American cheeses knocked bad cheeses, but not our Cheddars and our Cheshires, out of the market. In the same way if farmers would only improve the character of their butter they need not be afraid of competition for a long time. (Hear.)

Viscount FOLKESTONE thought the House had been rather carried away from the question. (Hear.) The resolution of his honorable friend was to the effect that it was desirable that such steps should be taken by the legislature as would insure as far as possible that spurious compounds resembling butter should only be sold under distinctive names. They had been informed that there were acts which provided for that necessity, but those acts did not do what was required in that direction. The resolution went on to say that the importation and sale of those compounds which were injurious to health should be prohibited altogether. It was all very well to say that good oleomargarine, or whatever it might be, was as good or better than bad butter; but that was not the question before the House. The question was this—that the butter-man or the shopkeeper who sold oleomargarine or butterine in place of butter should call it by a distinctive name and not sell it as butter. (Hear.) His honorable friend who brought this motion before the House said he did so in favor of the consumers, and he put aside the agriculturists altogether. His honorable friend, he thought, was right in doing so, but this question was of very great interest to the producer of butter. What was happening now in England? On account of bad seasons, bad weather, and for other reasons, the agricultural interest was at a very low ebb. It was a curious fact that in the last few years a vast quantity of arable land in this country had been turned into pasture. He presumed that had been done for the purpose of growing cattle and cows, and of making butter and cheese, and producing milk and beef and mutton. He did not believe that the increase of butter-making corresponded with the increase of permanent pasture. He believed, on the contrary, that the making of butter had decreased in this country. But what was the reason for that decrease? He thought we might fairly say that one reason at any rate was the importation of butter and butter substitutes that were sold as butter, which made it impossible for any agriculturist to compete with the foreign market. The report of Mr. Bateman, of the statistical department of the Board of Trade, said it was almost impossible to obtain accurate figures of oleomargarine and butterine, but it appeared that the present production of oleomargarine and butterine in the Eastern States was at any rate nearly 10,000,000 pounds per annum. The increase of the production of oleomargarine in the past year was owing to the higher price of natural butter. By the supply of the market with these spurious substances, the manufacture of real butter was being gradually driven out. In conclusion, he would only say that the majority of the speeches that evening had been in favor of the resolution, which, he could truly assert, was in the interest of the consumer as much as of the producer, inasmuch as it left him free to buy, according to his taste, either good butter or the adulterated article. (Hear, hear.)

Mr. CHAMBERLAIN thought that, except on a few points, it was not necessary for him to supplement the interesting and conclusive speech of his right honorable friend. The honorable baronet who had moved the resolution had deprecated the bare idea of protection; but he confessed that, without doubting the good faith of the honorable baronet, he regarded with some suspicion his assurance from the producer's point of view that he had the interests of the consumer at heart. In the last few days two or three questions of a similar character had been raised from the opposite side of the House. The result of one of the motions made by honorable gentlemen opposite would have been the absolute prohibition of the importation of live meat from foreign countries, and now the House had before it another proposal, which would in much the same way prohibit the importation of foreign butter. How enormous was the trade with which it was proposed to interfere might be gathered from the statement of the honorable baronet himself that 11,000,000 pounds of dairy produce were annually imported into this country. The noble lord who had last spoken had expressed some alarm at the effect of the competition of these products on the industry of the British farmer; but, as the price of butter had not fallen, his fears were probably groundless. Now as to the nature of the foreign butter products, although the honorable baronet had given an almost thrilling account of the dangers he apprehended, there was no evidence of any real danger from their use. It was tolerably clear that good oleomargarine was at least as wholesome as genuine butter. Mr. Bateman, of the Board of Trade, who had visited the premises of the largest company that made it, found nothing disgusting or unpleasant to the eye, but on the contrary, was struck by the pervading cleanliness of the place. Scientific witnesses had given evidence in its favor in the United States, where, by the way, the competition of this material with butter had been felt as keenly as in our own country. In reply to an application

of the health department of New York City, Professor Chandler had said: "I have satisfied myself that it is quite as valuable as butter from the cow. The material is fresh suet; the processes of manufacture are harmless, and are conducted with great cleanliness." An official report had also been made to the legislature of the State of New York that "there was no objection to the manufacture and sale of this substance." He could quote many more passages to the same effect, all of them conclusively proving the wholesomeness and utility of good oleomargarine. Another product—suine—was made from the lard of pigs instead of from suet; but there was no danger of trichinosis from it, and hogs' lard was a very common article of food among the poorer classes. As he understood the honorable baronet, he proposed to prohibit the sale of those articles, and regarded suine as an injurious article of food; but he thought it would be perfectly monstrous to issue any such prohibition. The third subject to which the honorable baronet had referred was butter on a soapstone basis, which he seemed to imagine was manufactured from soap. The fact, however, was that it had been found possible to adulterate butter and increase its weight by the use of soapstone, just as grocers were supposed to sand their sugar. That, of course, was a commercial fraud, but soapstone had been proved not to be in any way injurious to health; and he had it on the authority of Professor Church that if it was necessary to eat minerals at all, one might as well eat soapstone as any other. (A laugh.) However, the fraud on the purchaser was admitted; but it should not be forgotten that on that subject we had already very stringent laws. (Hear.) The honorable member for Salford had raised rather a different question by suggesting that, whatever might be the defects of artificial butter, those of real butter were worse, and the law did not adequately provide against them. If there was an oversight in the act, he would consider how the omission could be supplied. His honorable friend had, however, referred to cases in which there was no adulteration. Rancid butter was still butter. The case of adulteration was sufficiently met by the sale of food and drugs act, section 30, which affixed a penalty of £50 to the mixture of injurious ingredients with articles sold, and made a second offense a misdemeanor punishable by six months' imprisonment with hard labor. By the sixth section, if anything was sold to the prejudice of a purchaser which was not of the proper substance and quality, the vendor was made liable to a fine of £20. He thought the subject more properly belonged to his right honorable friend the secretary of the local government board. But from what he personally knew, he believed the act had proved efficient when properly put in force. There was thus power to punish fraud in such cases. He thought, therefore, with reference to the first point mentioned by the honorable baronet—viz, that such compounds as were harmless should only be sold under their proper names—sufficient security already existed. With reference to the second question, which concerned importation and sale, he would say, in the first place, that it was not proved to the satisfaction of any reasonable person that any of the compounds in question were dangerous to health. There was no evidence to that effect; secondly, the compulsory examination of those articles at the custom-house in order to determine their character could hardly be carried out, as they were of a perishable character, and to insist on such an examination would amount to the prohibition of the importation of foreign butter. Such a measure would really be prohibitive, and its effect would be to raise the price of an article of daily universal consumption. He could not, therefore, support the motion of the honorable baronet.

Mr. PELL had hoped that some suggestive comments would have been made by the right honorable gentleman on the subject before the House. But it appeared that in the returns of the Board of Trade those articles were not tabulated, and no satisfactory entry was made of the large importation of butterine and oleomargarine. He trusted steps would be taken to tabulate those substances. He thought it was hardly fair to insinuate that his honorable friend intended his motion to be of a protective character. His honorable friend knew, as everybody knew, that an attempt of the kind would be utterly hopeless. He would advise his honorable friend to make an alteration in his motion by leaving out the last two lines which referred to the importation of these articles. He would be sorry to prevent the importation of all articles that were dangerous to health. In that case many kinds of dyes, drugs, and medicines would be excluded. He would say one word on behalf of butterine. When he was in America he had visited a manufactory of butterine. It would have been impossible to distinguish the different processes—all of which were perfectly open to the inspection of any one—from those carried on in the case of real butter. The compound consisted of 45 per cent. of cream and 55 per cent. of animal fat. It was sold under its proper name, and was very popular among the people; and when the price of butter fell ruinously in America toward the close of 1879, butterine maintained its price of 22 cents —11*d.* a pound. He should be sorry to see that excellent article excluded from the English market. As to chemical examinations, no analysis would be really efficient where the differences were so subtle. If a chemist were to take a pound of his flesh and analyze it, and then take and analyze a pound of the flesh of the honorable member for Salford, no such difference would probably be detected as to indicate that one

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was a Tory and the other a Liberal. (Laughter.) He hoped that the president of the Board of Trade would see his way towards practically giving effect to the purpose of the motion, and that his honorable friend would agree to the modification which he had suggested.

Mr. SHAW hoped the honorable baronet would accede to the suggestion of the honorable member for Leicestershire. He did not wonder that the government had some suspicion of protectionist tendency in the motion, but he did not think that the honorable baronet had any purpose of the kind in his mind. The subject was one of great interest to the Irish members, as butter was a main staple of industry in that country, especially in the south. The value of the butter passing through the Cork market equaled the value of all the butter and butterine which, according to the statements made in the debate, were exported from New York. In that part of Ireland the making of butter was an extensive domestic manufacture. If the mover of the resolution acceded to the suggestion which had been made, and omitted all reference to prohibition, he hoped it would be accepted by the government. Everything should be sold for what it is, and not for what it is not. He knew that in England a large quantity of butterine was being sold as butter, and that was a fraud on the consumer. It was all very well to say that there were certain clauses in an act of Parliament under which this might be prevented; the question was why they were not enforced and why there was not machinery for detecting the fraud on the consumers. Chemists might find it difficult to distinguish between natural and artificial butter, but there were experts who could do it without hesitation. He had not the slightest fear of American competition. It had been beneficial in cheapening food when prices were becoming exorbitant; but still he always told his constituents that if they would produce the best butter and the best beef and mutton they could hold their own. (Hear, hear.) In this competition, however, people should be able to know exactly what they were buying.

Mr. SCLATER-BOOTH thought that the mover and the debate had scarcely been treated with fairness by the right honorable gentleman the president of the Board of Trade, who imported into it the suggestion of protection, which was not justified by the facts. The right honorable gentleman had pointed to the sale of food and drugs act as containing stringent provisions, which were effective so far as they enabled the consumer to require that the retailer should guarantee the genuineness of what he sold subject to penalties. It would be an additional safeguard to the public if the system could be more widely recognized and adopted, and if care could be taken that in wholesale importation oleomargarine and butterine should not be admitted under the name of butter.

Mr. CHAMBERLAIN. But the resolution asks us to prohibit importation altogether.

Mr. SCLATER-BOOTH said the prohibition referred only to articles that were injurious to health. As regarded everything else, all that was desired was that the articles should come in and be sold under their proper names. He could not see why the government could not accept the first part of the motion.

Mr. PELL said he should desire to move an amendment to the resolution when he was in order.

The SPEAKER said the resolution was an amendment, and if the House consented to its being withdrawn, another could be moved.

Mr. ASHMEAD-BARTLETT supported the motion, and thought that the government by opposing it acted as in their foreign policy, as the friends of every country but their own.

The House divided. The numbers were:—Ayes, 75; noes, 59; majority against the motion, 16.

The announcement of the numbers was received with loud cheers by the supporters of the motion.

DIRECT TRADE BETWEEN NEWCASTLE-UPON-TYNE AND THE UNITED STATES.

REPORT BY CONSUL JONES.

I have to state that the American bacon trade has been much injured in this district by the circulation of reports that parasites were discovered in the meat on the continent, and that French ports were closed against it.

It occurred to me that since France was but a comparatively small buyer of American meat, the fact should be made known; therefore I inserted a paragraph in my little book entitled "The Emigrant's Friend"

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showing the relative position of countries as importers of American produce, and sent the proof-sheet to the editor of the Chronicle in hopes that its publication might have a reassuring influence upon panic-stricken bacon importers. The matter appeared this morning, but not in the connection I had intended for it. However, I trust that the information will in some small degree have a beneficial influence upon the trade.

In my report on "The ship-building trade of the North of England," dated December 31, 1880, I ventured to intimate that the coming season would witness several lines of steamers running between this port and New York City. It is not unknown to the Department that I have done something for the promotion of direct trade between the Tyne and the United States; and it is satisfactory to announce that three lines of steamers, carrying both goods and passengers, are already in the trade. Moreover, a shipping company is now being formed here, with a capital of £250,000, for the purpose of establishing a line of weekly steamers, of the highest class and best description, to carry freight and passengers between New York and Newcastle-upon-Tyne.

The promoters of the new company have thought fit to reprint a copious extract from a letter written by me to Joseph Cowen, esq., M. P., in the interest of direct communication between the Tyne and America. It is perhaps superfluous for me to say that I am in no way interested in any particular line of steamers, but rather in the establishment of direct communication, as intended to extend the market and increase the demand, lessen the cost of transportation, and enhance the profits of the manufactured and agricultural products of the United States.

EVAN R. JONES,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Newcastle upon-Tyne, March 18, 1881.

The direct trade between Newcastle and America.

[From the Newcastle Chronicle.]

We are glad to observe that increased attention is being given to schemes for the promotion of a direct trade between the Tyne and America, a subject which has been repeatedly brought under the notice of the commercial community on both sides of the Atlantic by Major Jones, the American consul in Newcastle. The latest movement in this direction is now before us in the prospectus of the "Taurus Line" New York and Newcastle Steam Shipping Company. The object of this company is to carry on with superior fast steamers, and with greater punctuality and efficiency, the trade now being worked by the Taurus line of steamers, between New York City and the New Grain Warehouses, Quayside, for which purpose it is intended to acquire six steamers of large burthen and good power, to maintain weekly sailings between New York and Newcastle, at fixed dates, on an average passage of from ten to twelve days between ports, by which means the dealers in American produce on the Northeast Coast will be placed on equal terms with those of the ports of Liverpool and Glasgow, and the damage, delay, and expense caused by transshipment or railway carriage will be avoided. Pending the construction of new vessels, the trade will be carried on by the steamers at present on the line, or others. The quantity of American provisions, grain, breadstuffs, and other produce now required by Newcastle and district, amounts to at least 6,000 tons per week, and is steadily increasing. The steamers will be specially adapted for the conveyance of cattle, on the most approved principles, so as to meet the increasing demand in the central market of the district, which can only be effected by bringing the cattle to Newcastle Quay, in which market alone the cattle will bring the full and fair value. Outward cargo can be procured at fair rates, and it is calculated that the new steamers will gradually absorb a large share of the emigrant traffic, with a view to which the steerage fittings have been specially designed. The prospectus adds: "There is no promotion money or commission on any of the contracts, and the management will be paid by a fixed salary. All commissions

and brokerage to go to the credit of the company." Some idea of the importance and extent of the trade between this country and America may be gathered from a consideration of the following statement of facts and figures, prepared by Major Jones for a new edition of his book, published under the title of "The Emigrant's Friend": "During the year 1879 there were exported from America, chiefly to the United Kingdom, 25,898 hogs, 73,169 horned cattle, 2,949 horses, 3,349 mules, 112,903 sheep. Bacon and hams, 749,316,601 lbs.; fresh beef, 66,448,174 lbs.; salted beef, 40,547,622 lbs; butter, 38,248,016 lbs.; cheese, 141,654,474 lbs.; lard, 345,296,532 lbs.; pork, 92,071,988 lbs.; tallow, 101,646,707 lbs.; cotton, 1,628,372,833 lbs.; petroleum, 378,310,010 gallons. The import and export trade of the country during the year 1879 amounted to 1,278,897,480 dollars. The great increase in agricultural products exported during the last twenty years is represented by the following figures: Value of exports in 1859, 254,297,969 dollars; value in 1879, 604,276,667 dollars. The provision trade of the United Kingdom has recently been thrown into a panic by reports, false for the most part, which have reached us from the continent, but more especially from France, of disease having been discovered in American meat. It is therefore interesting to know who are buyers of American bacon and other provisions, and to what extent each country is a customer, in order that importers may calculate what would be the natural effect upon price and demand should some of the buyers close their accounts." The tables added to this statement show that Fance is a very small customer of American produce. Of live animals England takes 71 per cent., and the continent of Europe 4 per cent. Of pork, bacon, &c., England takes 59 per cent., Germany 10 per cent., Belgium and Holland 9 per cent., and France 8 per cent. only; of beef, butter cheese, &c., England takes 71 per cent., Germany 9 per cent., and France not more than 4 per cent.

TRADE OF BRISTOL.

REPORT BY CONSUL CANISIUS.

My successor, who enters upon his official duties to-day, will report to the Department at the end of the quarter the exports and imports of Bristol to and from the United States, which I cannot report now, as the quarter has not yet expired, and because my transfer to the Geestemunde consulate is connected with so much preparation that I have been unable to devote the necessary time to give a satisfactory report to the Department for the quarter which will close on the 31st of the present month.

The exports from here to the United States have been very limited, but the imports will compare favorably with those of the same quarter of the preceding year. The arrivals of American vessels seem to decrease; in fact not one American vessel has arrived here during the present quarter. The Bristol Steamship Companies monopolize the trade between this and the States.

The British public are already sufficiently acquainted with the mistaken report of their vice-consul at Philadelphia regarding hog cholera in America, and as the matter has also been up in Parliament, they understand very well that the bacon shipped from America to this country is as sound as their own. The steps taken by the Secretary of State to counteract the erroneous report of the British consul have been published in all the English papers, so that no falling off in the export of pork to Great Britain need be feared.

The imports into the United Kingdom are still much greater than the exports. In February, 1880, they were 16 per cent. more than those of February, 1879, and last month they rose another 10 per cent. over those of last year, 1880. The falling off in January last is thus shown to have been due to the storms and gales which destroyed a large quantity of merchandise, and delayed the arrival of more. The exports show an increase of only 2 per cent. over those of February, 1880, but those of February, 1880, show an advance of about 30 per cent. over those of

February, 1879. That so great an expansion has been more than maintained is considered matter for satisfaction. There is again a great falling off in the exports of iron and steel; but this, too, is only relative, the figures for February of last year having shown an increase of 96 per cent. in quantity and 88½ per cent. in value over those for February, 1879.

On the whole it may be said that the export trade of the country is in a fairly prosperous state, although it gives no encouragement to the hopes of the more eager class of speculators.

T. CANISIUS, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Bristol, March 14, 1881.

GERMAN EMIGRATION.

REPORT BY CONSUL DU BOIS, OF AIX LA CHAPELLE.

I have the honor to inclose herewith a short report on emigration, which is a subject of much interest in this locality, as there are many mechanics and agriculturists who are leaving for the United States.

JAMES T. DU BOIS, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Aix la Chapelle, March 30, 1881.

REPORT ON EMIGRATION.

The following, from a Prussian landed proprietor, was published recently in a German newspaper:

"The condition of the people this year is worse than it was during the year that has just passed. Six of my laborers have just left me. So it is everywhere. Whole families are leaving for America, and most of the males who remain are good-for-nothing, idle fellows. I want a good errand boy, but none is to be had. Everybody seems to have gone or is getting ready to go to America. By the end of another year our villages will be deserted."

Not having been instructed by the Department to make a report upon the subject of emigration, and feeling that perhaps the matter does not belong at all to the duties pertaining to the consular office, I am somewhat in doubt as to the propriety of interesting myself in this topic; still the foregoing statement and many incidents which have occurred and are constantly happening around me concerning the startling exodus of the "Weariedofeuropers" have induced me to venture to place before you a short report on this truly interesting subject.

Since the beginning of 1881 emigration has increased so much that a comparison of the months of January, February, and March of last year with the corresponding months of this year will prove that even the astounding figures of the former have been augmented twofold.

Hamburg, Stettin, and Bremen are the chief ports of embarkation in Germany. Many German emigrants embark, however, in foreign harbors, especially at Antwerp, Havre de Grace, and Liverpool. A foreign harbor is the Mecca of those who leave the Fatherland under doubtful circumstances, such as escaping military duty, &c. These journey as ordinary travelers until they are beyond the power of the German police, who are savagely vigilant in enforcing all laws which can in any manner place barriers in the way of the emigrant.

From 1820 to 1880 over 11,000,000 emigrants entered the harbor of New York. Over 3,000,000 of these were Germans, which numbers more than was our entire population at the close of the revolutionary war. In 1794 only 6,000 emigrants found a refuge on

our soil. During 1881 we shall undoubtedly welcome to our shores a half million of strangers who are coming to our factories, workshops, and fields amply equipped and prepared to work out an honorable living. Of this number 200,000 will be Germans.

What a splendid sacrifice is this for Germany to make in the interest of American progress and civilization! Two hundred thousand of the best labor of the land. Most of these will be men having some good trades, or experienced tillers of the soil, or hardy, willing workers at whatever their hands may find to do. Besides a knowledge of mechanics, agriculture, or some useful trade, they will bring with them an average of $70 each. Thus Germany is fated to lose and America is sure of gaining not only 200,000 industrious citizens, but those citizens are going to carry away with them $14,000,000 and put it at once in circulation in the United States.

There is still another computation to be made that is really significant. Each able-bodied and industrious emigrant adds $1,000 to the general wealth of the country in which he takes up his residence, so that in reality Germany will lose and America will gain 200,000 valuable citizens, $14,000,000 of solid money, and $200,000,000 which the muscle and skill of these men represent.

When Germany has these startling figures representing a dead loss to her material interests to contemplate, it is little to be wondered that she is excited and perplexed over the question of emigration. She feels that what was last year a lively emigration will be this year an irresistible exodus. On every side she sees men who by economy and hard work have acquired a little property, throwing that property on the market at a great sacrifice in order to secure funds with which to reach the inviting plains that lie beyond the Mississippi. She is conscious of the fact that her mechanics, who have been toiling years for from 50 to 75 cents *per diem*, are yielding by hundreds and thousands to the tempting prospects of good food and good wages which America offers to all. Everywhere she sees her sturdy farmers who have spent a good portion of their lives tilling unproductive soil, and who have, as a result, empty purses and empty stomachs, sacrificing their love of home and Fatherland by departing to find new homes in the New World. Her miners who have drudged twelve hours a day for 50 cents are hurrying westward, where the empire of labor is making each laborer a comfortable sovereign. Her weavers and spinners who here produced, at starving wages, the woolens which have clothed the American citizen are becoming American citizens themselves, and hope to weave and spin, at living wages, woolens for those whom they leave behind. Such is the picture which Germany has to contemplate to-day, and the contemplation of it has created a feeling of uneasiness among all who have the best interests of the Fatherland at heart.

In some localities the alarm has become excitement. It is the topic of conversation in political and social circles. Officials are becoming very active in enforcing all local and national laws which can in any way hinder emigration, or make it a grievous burden to those who attempt to seek a refuge on American soil. Scarcely a week passes but what some leader of a board of artisans or agriculturists visit this consulate for the purpose of obtaining advice and information concerning emigration. The knowledge sought relates to means of transportation, mode of conduct, climate, and soil of certain localities, and many other things which directly interest the emigrant. Most of these men are well dressed, hardy, intelligent, and deserving characters. Some of them have received pamphlets from different societies interested in emigration, but they are not satisfied with the information which these documents contain regarding the details of transportation, the manner of securing purchases of land, the cost of living, and the amount of wages paid for the various branches of industry.

These visits are not as agreeable as they would be if the consular officer felt no restraint in the matter. Sent here as a commercial representative of the United States, he feels it his duty to do all in his power to advance the industrial interests of his country. But, on the other hand, he is conscious of the fact that emigration is highly distasteful to the German Government, and that any advice or aid he may give to the emigrant will be offensive to both the local and national authorities. Anxious to serve the best interests of his country, and wishing at the same time to administer his consular affairs in a manner not offensive to the government from which he receives his exequatur, the consular officer in dealing with the delicate subject of emigration finds himself in an uncomfortable position whenever that question is presented to him in such a way as to require his personal action in the matter. Of one thing, however, he is certain. His first duty is to promote the true interests of the United States, but to do that duty wisely and well in Germany under present circumstances requires a long head and a full measure of patience and sense.

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UNITED STATES SECURITIES IN HOLLAND.

REPORT BY CONSUL ECKSTEIN, OF AMSTERDAM.

I have the honor herewith to inclose a report upon the subject of financial operations in the Amsterdam money market, covering the period from January, 1880, to January, 1881, and more particularly relating to the dealings in American Government and railroad securities.

Since the beginning of the new year I have made strenuous efforts to obtain information which would enable me to report upon matters concerning the commerce of Amsterdam during the past year, but find it is utterly impossible to get hold of any data whatever emanating from official sources. From that quarter nothing is forthcoming or can in any way be obtained in the way of statistics until late in the summer.

My efforts in that direction shall, however, not be relaxed, in the expectation that I may succeed in getting from trustworthy private sources at least such information as will place me in position to report at an early day concerning last year's imports of, and transactions in, some of the most important American staples, such as grain, cotton, petroleum, &c., at this port.

D. ECKSTEIN, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Amsterdam, January 31, 1881.

[Inclosures.]

FINANCIAL REPORT.

UNITED STATES BONDS, RAILROAD AND OTHER AMERICAN SECURITIES.

AMSTERDAM, NETHERLANDS, *January* 31, 1881.

In compliance with recent Department instructions upon the subject of special consular reports, and fully recognizing the necessity and greater utility of such reports being made more frequently and timely than formerly was the practice, I have the honor hereby to transmit a brief report relating to transactions in American government and other securities at Amsterdam from January, 1880, to January, 1881.

The redemption of the 5 and 6 per cent. United States bonds has been to the many holders of such bonds in this country a severely-felt and most unwelcome financial operation. This feeling was further intensified by the fact that the standard rate of interest in Europe has also decreased, so that now first-rate investments offering 4 per cent. interest can hardly be made.

Under such circumstances it does not seem astonishing that the many Dutch capitalists and others regret the withdrawal of the above-mentioned United States bonds, which, combining with their unquestioned safety, guaranteed to them such a handsome interest.

When I state that our 4 per cent. government bonds found but few takers in Holland, and principally because Dutch government securities, bearing about the same interest, can be purchased at a much lower rate, it will scarcely be necessary to say that the at present projected emission of 3 per cents. elicits no other interest, in this market, than is excited by the wonder with which the people here regard the resources and progress of the United States, of which they some times speak as a young giant of a country, which has found it possible, in comparatively so short a time, to place its financial standing so high as justly to command the respect and admiration of the world.

The natural effect of this has been that the in the previous year already returned confidence in the development of American railroad interests received a still further impetus in 1880. Thus very large amounts of capital, seeking comparatively safe investment at remunerative interest, were without stint or hesitation put into Amer-

ican railroad bonds, and as well into securities guaranteed by State and municipal authorities and other private corporations.

I am assured that the total volume of transactions, purchase and sale, in American railway securities in 1880 at Amsterdam, and in Holland generally, attained to proportions never before equaled, making this country one of the principal, if not the most important, European markets for them, pushing everything else considerably into the background.

For instance, the Dutch people were always proverbially partial to invest largely in Russian securities, but during the last year even they were much neglected; so was formerly always an extensive business done here in Austrian-Hungarian securities, amounting to many millions per annum, which, I am informed, became reduced to a mere minimum in 1880.

A fact naturally not to be lost out of sight is that the business in American securities was strongly and almost constantly assisted and sustained by the remarkable buoyancy and upward tendencies of the New York exchange, while the European money market has constantly suffered from a variety of political complications and not a little from the internal sad and deplorable condition of Russia.

In the course of the year millions upon millions of American railroad bonds and shares found their way to this country, and an approximate estimate of how many millions is hardly possible, and a very large proportion of them were subsequently purchased again for American account and returned, the Dutch people realizing from such transactions immense gains.

The confidence of the people here in American railroad securities in the early part of the year seemed to have no limit at all, and they purchased freely any paper if offered at any considerable decline from previous quotations of same without any investigations whatever, whether such decline was based upon legitimate and good grounds or otherwise, but as, finally, in nearly all cases profits were realized, the results from the total operations of the year 1880 in American railroad securities has been enormously in favor of the Dutch public. It is said that from 40,000,000 to 60,000,000 guilders have been realized thereby, and that, in the absence of any possibility to get at the figures representing their gains, it may safely be assumed that those figures are more likely to be too low than too high.

A noteworthy feature in these transactions, from which such colossal profits were realized, is the fact that as a general thing these profits are pocketed without many words being said about them, whereas, a few years ago, when an unavoidable condition of affairs entailed rather severe losses upon the same people, they made a most terrible outcry about them, and instead of blaming themselves for being too credulous, over-confident, and short-sighted, denounced in such unmeasured terms not only railroad corporations and their managements, but also the United States Government, and everything American. It would therefore be but reasonable to expect, should these people at any time in the future again be doomed to suffer reverses, that they may display a little more generosity and better taste.

From the hereto subjoined tables of quotations the fluctuations in the prices from January, 1880, to January, 1881, of some of the railroad bonds and shares most extensively dealt in on the Amsterdam Bourse may be seen. The enormous amounts of securities, chiefly shares, bought up here on American account during the past six months, have to a great extent been substituted by the emission of others, so that at the present time there are many hundreds of millions of American railroad securities still in the possession of Dutch holders, and it is, partly, on this account that all events and occurrences in and affecting the United States are now closely watched and observed, and noted with the greatest interest by the people here—much more so than in former days. This interest now taken here in American affairs is further augmented by the increasing commercial transactions between the two countries.

I append to this report a statement showing the volume of business transacted in the post-office at Amsterdam during the year 1880, believing that in a measure it may serve to indicate the degree of the importance of this city as a commercial and financial center.

Statement showing the average quotations of United States Government bonds at the Amsterdam Bourse from January, 1880, to January, 1881.

Class of bonds.	January, 1880.	April, 1880.	July, 1880.	October, 1880.	January, 1881.
Issue 1877, 4 per cent	102⅞	105½	107½	107½	113
Issue 1876, 4½ per cent	105⅞	107⅝	108⅝	108⅝	110⅞
Issue 1871, 5 per cent	101⅞	101½	101½	108⅛	100
Issue 1861–1864, 6 per cent	102¼	101	100¼	100¼	98¼

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Statement showing the average quotations of railroad bonds at the Amsterdam Bourse from January, 1880, to January, 1881.

Class of bonds.	Per cent.	January, 1880.	April, 1880.	July, 1880.	October, 1880.	January, 1881.
Atlantic, Mississippi and Ohio	7	71	93¼	90⅞	98	128
Cairo, Saint Louis	7	53	58⅞	57⅞	59½	74⅞
Central Pacific	6	108½	110	111¼	111¼	114⅜
California, Oregon	6	100	103½	103½	104	105
Chicago Northwestern, consolidated	7	111	111¼	113⅜	114½	121
Denver Pacific	7	90½	94	93	94⅞	102½
Denver Rio Grande	7	95¾	101	101¾	105⅝	114¾
Denver Rio Grande, extensions*	7	.....	.....	.....	96¾	113
Kansas Pacific	6	100¾	106⅜	104¾	108⅛	114
Kansas Pacific, consolidated*	6	.....	.....	.....	95½	104
Saint Louis and Southeastern	7	98¾	107	106¼	105	115
Saint Louis and San Francisco	6	99¾	100⅛	100½	100¼	107
Saint Louis, Wichita and Western*	6	.....	.....	99⅝	100	104
Missouri, Kansas and Texas	7	89	101¾	100⅜	105	109½
Missouri, Kansas and Texas, income bonds	6	46½	67⅜	63¾	63⅜	76¾
Port Huron	7	52	77¼	75¼	75⅛	85⅜
Southern Pacific, Missouri	6	101	100⅞	102⅞	101¾	103¾
Southern Pacific, California*	6	.....	.....	96	98	102½
New York, Pennsylvania and Ohio, prior lien	6	90	93⅛	98¼	99⅜	103¾
Oregon and California	6	96	96⅛	94	93⅛	97
Paducah, Elisabethtown	7	46½	57¾	49½	57¼	61¾
Saint Paul, Minneapolis and Manitoba, first mortgage.	7	106⅞	109	107	105⅛	107¼
Saint Paul, Minneapolis and Manitoba, second mortgage.*	6	.....	.....	95	98¼	102
Toledo, Peoria	7	70	66	67	71½	89½
Union Pacific, main line	6	108½	109¾	110½	110½	113⅜

* Bonds of this company first floated in the Amsterdam market during the year 1880.

Statement showing the average quotations of railroad shares at the Amsterdam Bourse from January, 1880, to January, 1881.

Class of shares.	January, 1880.	April, 1880.	July, 1880.	October, 1880.	January, 1881.
Canada Southern	68	66¾	57⅞	60 3/16	75⅛
Chicago, Northwestern, preferred	105	113½	111¼	125	143
Chicago, Northwestern, common	87½	97⅛	93	103	122
Chicago, Rock Island	153⅜	194	219	*117⅞	137⅝
Cleveland, Columbus, Cincinnati and Indiana	78	79½	71	71½	94⅜
Illinois Central	98⅛	107	105½	112½	127⅝
Saint Louis and San Francisco, first preferred	.....	.....	.....	76⅜	101⅛
Michigan Central	96	94⅜	92	97½	130
Milwaukee, Saint Paul, commons	74	86	73½	93⅜	114
Milwaukee, Saint Paul, preferred	95½	106¼	100½	116	122
New York, Lake Erie and Western	42½	45 3/16	41 3/16	39	50⅛

* The number of shares having been doubled accounts for the lower quotation.

Statement showing the ruling rate of exchange at Amsterdam from January, 1880, to January, 1881.

	January, 1880.	April, 1880.	July, 1880.	October, 1880.	January, 1881.
London, at sight, per pound sterling	12.05½	12.11½	12.09	12.10½	12.07
London, two months, per pound sterling	12.00	12.05	12.03	12.04	12.01
Paris, at sight, per 100 francs	47.75	47.92½	47.80	47.70	47.80
Paris, at two months, per 100 francs	47.45	47.60	47.50	47.40	47.40
Hamburg, at sight, per 100 R. marks	59.10	59.00	59.05	59.30	59.15
Hamburg, two months, per 100 R. marks	58.60	58.55	58.50	58.50	58.65

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Statement showing the transactions of and mail matter transmitted through the post-office at Amsterdam in 1880.

Mail matter.	Number.	Amount.	Proportion of the total amount in the Netherlands, about—
Letters	7,460,000		One-seventh part.
Post-cards	2,672,000		One-fifth part.
Newspapers.....copies..	9,382,000		One-third part.
Newspapers.....packages..	7,330,000		
Other printed paper.....do....	2,822,000		One-fourth part.
Samples and merchandise.....do....	591,000		One-third part.
Registered letters sent	294,000		One-fourth part.
Registered letters received	330,000		One-third part.
Postal money-orders sent	109,050	$2,028,000	One-eleventh part.
Postal money-orders paid	177,270	2,996,000	One-seventh part.
Receipts for collection sent	67,100	284,870	One-fifth part.
Receipts for collection received	20,900	83,100	
Value of postage-stamps and post-cards sold		878,100	One-fourth part.
Amount received and paid out in 1874		3,080,000	
Amount received and paid out in 1880		6,640,000	

D. ECKSTEIN, *Consul.*

REVIEW OF ITALIAN TRADE.

REPORT BY CONSUL DUNCAN, OF NAPLES.

As I have before had occasion to remark, hardly any period of the year could be more unsuitable to making up annual consular reports here than the end of September, in so far as obtaining reliable official statistical information is concerned. Official statistics are only made up after the end of December of each year, and the report of the Chamber of Commerce, on which one has to rely mainly, does not usually come out until some months later. This being the case, one has to rely on such information as can be obtained through brokers and shipping agents, which is necessarily incomplete and more or less unreliable. Besides, in the present case, not expecting to be here so long, I made what I intended as my annual report in May—dispatch No. 265—and since then have not been so careful in collecting such material for a later report as I might have obtained; but owing to the unexpectedly long delay in the arrival and qualification of my successor, the duty of making the regular annual report may be considered as incumbent on me, and the new consul, Mr. Smith, especially requests that I should make it. While therefore still desiring my report of May last to be regarded as the main portion of my annual report and to be published as such, I will briefly put together such additional information as I have been able to collect.

The past year has been an especially unfavorable one for Naples, as well as the rest of Italy. The season was bad, crops very short, especially in grain and other necessaries of life, business has been bad generally and as a consequence labor difficult to obtain and poorly remunerated, and suffering among the poor very great. Food, especially breadstuffs, has been unusually high, and would have been much more so had it not been for the large grain importation from the United States. The natural result of all this was an increase of importations over exportations, thus draining the country of money it was in no condition to spare.

The main articles imported from the United States into Naples continue as heretofore to consist of petroleum, tobacco, and cotton, with the addition of grain and cotton-seed oil.

As to how far the importation of grain can continue, when Italy has good crops, remains to be seen. Many think that it will continue, es-

pecially that of Indian corn, for reasons given in my dispatch No. 265. The large recent importation of cotton-seed oil has been a great source of alarm here on account of its competition with olive oil, which is one of the leading articles of exportation from Italy, and one of which Italy was especially proud, as being to a considerable extent a monopoly. Now, the cotton-seed oil threatens not only to make dangerous competition, as substituting the olive oil for various uses, but also in bringing the olive oil into disrepute as an article of food, on account of its adulteration with the former. The cotton seed oil has already found its way into the remotest mountain villages, whose sole production is olive oil, where it is mixed with the latter, and sold as pure, and so great is the resemblance that even the most expert cannot detect the mixture. The government is endeavoring to impose a tax on cotton-seed oil.* But even then the protection would be inadequate, as the cotton-seed oil has already found its way into other countries to which the olive oil was exported, especially into Russia, one of the chief outlets for the Italian olive oil. As the cotton-seed oil can be brought to Italy and sold for less than half the value of olive oil, the temptation to use it for the purpose of adulteration is manifest.

As before stated, it is not easy to obtain reliable statistics at this season. But according to the best information I can get, the amount of American grain imported into Naples during the past twelve months is considerably in excess of 2,000,000 bushels. The amount of tobacco imported during same period was in excess of 5,000 hogsheads, weighing over 8,000,000 pounds. The amount of petroleum for same period was over 28,364 barrels, and 78,200 cases.

There was also during same period considerable quantities of cotton-seed oil, entire cargoes, lard, &c., exact statistics of which I cannot obtain. Large quantities of canned meats, fish, oysters, lobsters, &c., are always to be found on the Naples market. But these come as yet almost entirely through large English houses, so they are not known here at the custom-house as American production at all. This being the case it is impossible to get statistics as to amount. The late improvement in direct connection with New York through the Florio steamers has already made considerable change in causing direct importations from the United States, and I have little doubt that in a short time many new articles of American production will find their way into South Italy to the mutual benefit of both countries. As a favorable indication of this, one of the last Florio steamers arriving here from New York brought 52 cases of agricultural machinery and implements to a single house dealing in such articles in Naples.

The exports from this consulate to the United States do not show so favorably since the establishment of the commercial agency at Castellammare, the Sorrento fruit business going now to that office. Besides, the glove business, formerly the most important article of export from Naples to the United States, has been very largely diminished, owing mainly, I think, to trouble with the custom-houses in the United States. The declared value of shipments to the United States during the past year shows some increase over the previous year.

The very small proportion of the commercial business between Italy and the United States done in American vessels, and my ideas of the best remedy therefor, I indicated in my dispatch No. 265, and need not now repeat. But the fact is manifest that at present American vessels cannot compete successfully in the carrying trade with other nations. Something is absolutely necessary in the way of legislation before *this*

* The tax has been imposed since this report was written.

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national humiliation can be removed. Those interested in the improvements of our commerce, and desirous of seeing the American flag duly represented in commercial ports, will hope to see necessary legislation at an early day.

B. O. DUNCAN,
*Consul.**

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Naples, Italy.

SHIPPING TOLLS ON THE DANUBE.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL SCHUYLER, OF BUCHAREST.

I have the honor to send you herewith the new tariff of the tolls and taxes collected by the European commission of the Danube on vessels passing the Sulina mouth of the Danube, which went into effect on the 1st of February, 1881.

This tariff takes the place of that of the 10th of November, 1875, and lowers the tolls in consequence of the diminished expenses for the maintenance of the works at the mouth of the Danube. Its chief provisions, so far as they are likely to affect American vessels, are these:

Article 1. Every sailing vessel or steamer guaging at least 100 tons leaving the port of Sulina for the sea and carrying, according to its bills of lading or manifests, a cargo equivalent to a third of its tonnage, pays per ton on its total tonnage a fixed navigation tax, as follows:

Tonnage.	Loaded at Sulina.	Loaded in any other port.
	Francs.	*Francs.*
From 100 to 150 tons	0.40	0.70
From 151 to 200 tons	1.00	1.35
From 201 to 250 tons	1.45	1.80
From 250 to 300 tons	1.80	2.20
From 301 to 400 tons	2.10	2.50
From 401 to 500 tons	2.30	2.70
From 501 to 600 tons	2.40	2.85
From 601 to 700 tons	2.45	2.95
From 701 to 800 tons	2.50	3.00
More than 800 tons	2.55	3.05

Article 2. These taxes are to be collected only when the depth of the channel at the Sulina mouth is 15 English feet. If the depth becomes less the tolls will be diminished by 15 per cent. for every foot of diminution of depth up to 10 feet.

By Article 3, if a ship makes more than one voyage in the same year, there will be a reduction of 5 per cent. for a second voyage, 10 per cent. for a third, &c.

By Article 5 vessels entering Sulina from the sea with a cargo equivalent to more than one-third of their tonnage pay on entering the river a tax equal to a quarter of that imposed on them for leaving.

By Article 9 vessels of war are free from all taxes, and by Article 14 the unit of gauging adopted by the European commission is a capacity of 100 cubic feet, English, the same as the unit adopted in the United States.

EUGENE SCHUYLER.

CONSULATE-GENERAL OF THE UNITED STATES,
Bucharest, March 12, 1881.

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* Now of Smyrna.

CUSTOMS DUTIES OF SPAIN.

REPORT BY CONSUL MARSTON, OF MALAGA.

As there seems to be a general movement being made by European governments against the excessive duties upon imports into Spanish ports, I have the honor to report to the Department of State upon the subject of duties collected at Malaga upon articles imported into Spain from the United States, as well as upon some some articles upon which heavy duties are exacted, but which are almost wholly supplied by England and other European markets.

I am informed that a direct effort is being made by England to negotiate a commercial treaty with Spain, with a view of reducing these heavy duties upon English productions, and while there are exorbitant duties charged upon goods produced in England, the United States suffers equally upon certain classes of goods imported into Spain, notably in petroleum, provisions, and canned goods, as well as on many classes of goods which are produced and manufactured by us, the importation of which is prevented by the excessive duties imposed.

There is also besides customs duties an "octroi" (or consumers') duty, as it is called, which is a tax imposed and collected before the goods can be delivered. This "octroi" duty is enormously high, and of which no mention is made in the published customs tariff of Spain.

I will include in this report the following articles with duties, customs, octroi, &c., imposed upon each, viz:

Petroleum (refined and benzine).—One box of petroleum contains two cans weighing, oil included, 32 kilograms. The invoice price of the box is about 32 reals vellon. The Spanish duties are: customs, at 22 reals vellon per 100 kilograms, are 7.04 reals vellon; transitory, at 15 reals vellon per 100 kilograms, are 4.80 reals vellon; extraordinary (imposed by order July 31, 1880), are 22.08 reals vellon; total customs duty are 33.92 reals vellon, equal to 106 per cent! To this must be added octroi dues at 28.48 reals vellon, which makes a total of 195 per cent.

Hams and dry salted meat.—The customs duty is, comparatively speaking, not very heavy, say 0.23 reals vellon per kilogram, but the octroi is 1.60 reals vellon per kilogram, or seven times the amount of customs duty!

Salmon, lobsters, and soups in tins.—A one pound tin weighs 0.550 kilogram; price 36.25 reals vellon per dozen. The customs duty on the dozen, at 4 reals vellon per kilogram, is 26.40 reals vellon, or 70 per cent. Add to this the octroi, 8.32 reals vellon, and it becomes 95¾ per cent. on the original cost!

Preserved provisions, pickles, sauces, &c., pay customs duty 4 reals vellon per kilogram; the tins, jars, or bottles in which they are packed are included in the weight and no tare is allowed. On pickles especially this is exorbitant. One bottle of pickles weighs a few grams more than a kilogram, and its cost, at $2 per dozen, is 3.33 reals vellon, and it pays for customs duty 4 reals vellon or 120 per cent. ont he cost. There is also an octroi duty to be added to the foregoing of 1.44 reals vellon, or 43 per cent., which makes a total duty of 163 per cent. on the cost of the goods!

Jams, jellies, and preserves pay 4 reals vellon the kilogram, tins or jars included. One pot of jam weighs 0.360 kilogram; the dozen costs about

$1.56 or 31.25 reals vellon, and the customs duty amounts to 25.44 reals vellon, being 81 per cent. Add to this 13.20 reals vellon for octroi dues and the article stands charged with 123½ per cent. on the cost price!

Hardware (of iron and steel) *and tin plates* pays from 0.30 reals vellon to 20 reals vellon the kilogram. Although Spain is a country possessing untold mineral wealth, the high cost of fuel has always been a serious impediment to most of her ores being profiably smelted here. Spain is consequently dependent upon foreign countries, chiefly England, for her supplies of hardware and for agricultural implements and machinery, and I consider that with proper encouragement the United States could supply with advantage to both countries whatever may be required in this branch of trade. The iron works, foundries, &c., now existing are so few and insignificant, that any refusal on the part of this country to lower the duties on foreign metal manufactures on the ground of protection due to native industry would certainly, to say the least, be out of place.

Apart from the various articles produced or extensively manufactured in Spain upon which high protection duties are levied, such as cotton and woolen goods, bar iron, &c., there are an infinity of articles which are taxed in the Spanish customs tariff, with exorbitant duty, notwithstanding many of them are neither produced nor manufactured to any important extent in Spain, and upon which a reduction of duty might be made, to the advantage of both the United States and Spain upon the proper representation of facts.

Copper, brass, or gun metal articles pay 5 reals vellon per kilogram, and if plated or lacquered 10 reals vellon per kilogram.

Coals.—The duty on this article was formerly 5 reals vellon per ton of 1,000 kilograms. About three years ago the duty was doubled, and it now pays 10 reals vellon. This increase in duty was made to appease the clamor of the proprietors of the Spanish mines, and the government also promised that Spanish coals alone should be used on board their ships of war, but the article is so dear and so inferior in quality that a short time ago the Spanish navy recommended burning English coals. The duty amounts to 25 per cent. on the prime cost of the article.

Glassware.—Wine bottles of common green glass pay 0.32 reals vellon per kilogram One gross costs 80 reals vellon, and weighs 106 kilograms; the duty is therefore 34 reals vellon or about 43 per cent. on the cost; but bottles of common white blown glass are charged with the same duty as the finest cut flint glass, which amounts to 1.80 reals vellon per kilogram.

Sugar pays customs duty per kilogram, 1.29 reals vellon; municipal duty per kilogram, 54 reals vellon; transitory duty per kilogram, 54 reals vellon; total customs duty, 2.37 reals vellon. One cwt. or 50.79 kilograms costs, say, 142.40 reals vellon; one kilogram is worth 2.80 reals vellon, and with 2.37 reals vellon upon this amount for duty, is equal to 84 per cent.

Tea pays custom duty, per kilogram, 6 reals vellon; municipal duty, per kilogram, 3.20 reals vellon; transitory duty, per kilogram, 3.20 reals vellon; total customs duty, per kilogram, 12.40 reals vellon.

On low-priced teas this duty is enormously high.

Coffee pays customs duty, per kilogram, 2 reals vellon; municipal duty, per kilogram, 1.08 reals vellon; transitory duty, per kilogram, 1.08 reals vellon; total customs duty, per kilogram, 4.16 reals vellon.

The duties on coffee amount to about 39 per cent on cost.

Candles of all kinds pay for customs duty 2 reals vellon per kilogram,

being about 23 per cent. But they are also charged with an octroi duty of 3.40 reals vellon per kilogram.

One pound parafine candles costs about 4.20 reals vellon, and pays duty (octroi) 1.70 reals vellon or 39 per cent.

Biscuit pays customs duty at 4 reals vellon per kilogram, including the tin, and if shipped loose in a cask the same rate of duty is charged on the cask. This is an enormous charge, and it renders all but impossible the importation of the low-priced English biscuits, which are the kind most used. For instance, a No. 2 tin of English "lunch" biscuits weighs 1.350 kilograms, and costs about 4.60 reals vellon; the customs duty is 5.40 reals vellon or 117 per cent.; to this must be added an octroi duty of 2.84 reals vellon or 62 per cent., making a total of 179 per cent.!

Boots and shoes pay 35 reals vellon per kilogram, being about 25 per cent. on cost.

Brushes of all kinds are charged duty according to the materials of which the handles are made; if of wood they pay 4.48 reals vellon; if of bone 10 reals vellon, and if of ivory or of tortoise shell 50 reals vellon per kilogram.

Toys, of whatever material other than gold, silver, tortoise shell, ivory, or mother of pearl, pay duty 6 reals vellon per kilogram; two dozen toys weighing 16 kilograms, and costing 120 reals vellon, are charged with 96 reals vellon for duty, being 80 per cent.!

Pharmaceutical and chemical products pay from 0.06 reals vellon to 120 reals vellon per kilogram. Calcined or citrated magnesia pays 4 reals vellon per kilogram or 37 per cent. The bottles are included in the weight and no tare is allowed.

Colors derived from coal and other artificial colors pay 10 reals vellon per kilogram.

Perfumery pays a duty of 8 reals vellon per kilogram. Two packets of Windsor soap weigh about one kilogram, and cost 14 reals vellon; the duty therefore is equal to 57 per cent. The same duty is levied on lower-priced scented soaps, but of good quality, such as glycerine in bars, it amounts to 113 to 140 per cent. on the cost price!

Spirits, cognac, gin, &c., pay duties, viz: customs, 80 reals vellon per hectoliter; customs (on barrel) 40 reals vellon per 100 kilograms; transitory, 15 reals vellon per hectoliter; octroi, 26 reals vellon per hectoliter.

Wines, French, not sparkling, in bottles of 0.70 liter, weighing 0.777 kilograms each bottle. Customs on wine 24 reals vellon per hectoliter; customs on bottles 32 reals vellon per 100 kilograms; octroi, 25 reals vellon per hectoliter.

Wines, French, sparkling, pay duties same as above, calculating each bottle to hold 0.80 liter, and to weigh 1 kilogram.

Wines, not French and not sparkling, as follows, viz: customs, import, on wine 2 reals vellon per liter; customs, import, on casks 40 reals vellon per 100 kilograms; octroi added, 25 reals vellon per hectoliter.

Wines, not French sparkling.—Customs on wines 6 reals vellon per liter; customs on bottles 32 reals vellon per 100 kilograms; octroi added 25 reals vellon per hectoliter.

Woolens.—Woolen cloths pay 32 reals vellon per kilogram; blanketing, 10 reals vellon per kilogram; carpeting, 7 reals vellon per kilogram. Rugs are charged as skins (article 187 of tariff); the dozen cost, say, 740 reals vellon, and weigh 24 kilograms. They pay duty at 36 reals vellon per kilogram, 864 reals vellon, equal to 117 per cent. on cost price!

Wearing apparel, woolen, pays 32 reals vellon per kilogram; and one-half extra when made up.

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I have given above a complete list of import duties imposed by the Spanish Government on certain classes of goods, but I would refer more particularly to what is called *transitory* and *municipal* duties, as well as to the *octroi* already referred to, all combined proving a great barrier to an active export of manufactured goods from the United States.

A short time since, in order to apparently yield to the many applications of other governments for a reduction of the Spanish duties, they agreed to discontinue what was then known as the "*surcharge*" duty, but in its stead they applied others which are represented in this letter, but the existence of which are realized only on the arrival of the merchandise at the port of destination.

H. C. MARSTON,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Malaga, Spain, ——— —, ——.

ICE EXPORTS FROM NORWAY.

REPORT BY CONSUL GADE, OF CHRISTIANIA.

The newspaper, Morgenblavet, of this city, gives the following statistics on the export of ice from Norway in registered tons:

Years.	Winter.	Summer.	Total.
	Tons.	*Tons.*	*Tons.*
1870	26,000	34,100	60,100
1871	28,600	47,600	76,200
1872	66,200	71,800	138,000
1873	70,600	83,500	154,100
1874	72,000	71,500	143,500
1875	54,600	71,400	126,000
1876	55,000	86,800	141,800
1877	98,800	110,400	209,200
1878	90,400	127,800	218,200
1879	53,400	85,100	138,500

During the first ten months of 1880, 147,000 tons of ice were shipped, and as it is computed that 12,000 tons were shipped during the last two months, the aggregate export in 1880 was 159,000 tons. Of these, 44,000 were shipped during the winter, and 115,000 during the summer. The largest summer shipment occurred in 1878, and as the ice-houses were then far from empty, it is clear that there is an over production, and that much larger quantities than are needed for the ordinary consumption are yearly stored. The consumption has not increased much since 1872, with the exception of the years 1877 and 1878. The consumption in Europe was also last year an average, and we must attribute the high figure of exports to the ice shipped to America. The prices have as a rule been very low during the last years, as the favorable year, 1874 (which was an exceptional one), occasioned too large a speculation in this trade. The above figures show that sufficiently large quantities of ice were stored for consumption also before 1874, and that consequently speculation was uncalled for. We cannot depend on any regular export of ice to America, as it is generally as cheap there as here.

Exports of ice from Norway for the years 1879 *and* 1878.

EXPORTED FROM—

Ports.	1879.	1878.
	Tons.	*Tons.*
Christiania and Dróbak	51, 132	70, 520
Drammen	3, 415	9, 791
Laurvik	14. 827	21, 099
Skien, Porsgrund, Brevik, and Langesund	36, 044	65, 890
Krazerb	13, 737	34, 225
Osterrisór	13, 582	13, 914
Other places	5, 810	2, 775
Total registered tons	138, 547	218, 214

EXPORTED TO—

Great Britain and Ireland	126, 716	167, 002
Hamburg and Bremen	.....	7, 908
Other German ports on the North Sea	.....	2, 452
Holland	576	6, 747
Belgium	2, 245	6, 437
France	7, 085	20, 925
Spain	1, 599	531
Other countries	326	6, 212
Total registered tons	138, 547	218, 214

The prospects for the ice trade this year are very poor. In England they have not had so severe a winter in the memory of man, and consumers are filling their stores with native ice. The demand for Norwegian ice will consequently be below the average, and there is special reason for reducing the quantity stored, as otherwise there would doubtless be large quantities left over till next year.

GERHARD GADE,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Christiania, February 2, 1881.

THE BLACK SEA (NOVOROSSISK) DISTRICT OF THE CAUCASUS.

REPORT BY D. R. PEACOCK, ESQ., AGENT AT POTI AND TIFLIS.

GENERAL REMARKS.

Its commerce with European and American markets being simply in a state of incipiency, this locality apparently may claim but little interest on the part of American readers. I nevertheless venture to make it the subject of my present report, inasmuch as it is one of the few fields of colonization in the Caucasus, and affords some striking demonstration as to the inefficacy of artificial or arbitrary government provisions to create population and production, regardless as to whether the mother country be economically prepared to feed and support a strange and remote colony. Moreover, this territory, densely populated and under cultivation in the time of the Circassians, now gradually growing wild notwithstanding the care of a costly administration under Russian rule, affords a remarkable case of reversion to a state of nature almost approaching unmitigated wilderness.

On the termination of the war between Russia and the Circassian tribes, in 1864, the mountaineers of the Black Sea district as well as those of the Rouban expatriated, leaving to the conqueror a desolate territory, destitute of roads, bridges, or any other permanent constructions. Deserted "Aouls," with huts of wickerwork surrounded by fruit trees, vine, straggling patches of cleared land, numerous foot-paths and bridle-roads intersecting the country from the sea-shore to the snowy hills, were the only traces left by the aborigines whose origin and history are but vaguely known, and who as an independent race, it may be said, have irretrievably disappeared from the face of the earth.

SITUATION AND AREA.

Situated between 43° 25′ and 44° 50′ latitude north, and 37° 20′ and 40° 5′ longitude east of Greenwich, on the northeastern coast of the Black Sea, 195 miles in length by 10 to 30 miles in breath, it rises to the Caucasian range of hills, forming its back-bone, from 9,000 to 13,000 feet high, and occupies an area of 2,430 square miles.

TOPOGRAPHY.

Its topographical configuration is of the most distorted and irregular nature. Only in its northern extremity near Anapa the ground is partly open and even. The rest consists of mountains, numerous ravines and narrow valleys, with rapid streams, all rising in the Alpine region and falling into the sea.

GEOLOGICAL FORMATION.

The prevailing formation is limestone, with superficial layers of diluvial and alluvial soil. At the bottoms of some of the wider river valleys remarkably thick and fertile deposits of humus are met. Excepting a few slight indications of iron ore and sulphur, the mountains, generally speaking, are poor in minerals.

NATURAL PRODUCT.

The county is thickly covered with timber, pine, beech, oak, ash, elm, and, in a very few secluded—almost inaccessible—ravines, the costly box wood (*buxus sempervirens*); in the southern half of the district chestnut, walnut, mulberry, fig, and other fruit trees, also vine, grow wild in great abundance. Pasture land is scarce, and the luxuriant vegetation of numerous kinds of creeping plants, gorse, and fern, makes the clearage of land for agricultural purposes very difficult and expensive. The animal kingdom comprises a great variety of species distributed between the mountain peaks covered with perpetual snow, and the evergreen bottom valleys near the open sea: the ibex, chamois, stag, roedeer, wild boar, bear, wolf, fox, jackal, the rock marten, &c. Quite a peculiar feature of this locality is the scarcity, and in some of its virgin forests the total absence, of birds. The mountain turkey and pheasant, however, are plentiful in certain parts. The streams abound in trout, and in the sea large quantities of herring, gray mullet, turbot, and the porpoise for the sake of its oil, are being yearly caught. The rocks yield excellent building material, and the lime of Novorossisk is considered to be of superior quality.

TEMPERATURE AND CLIMATE.

Sheltered from the north and northeast by an elevated range of hills and slopes dipping southward and open to the tempering influence of the sea, this country naturally enjoys a very mild temperature. At the fall of the year, and in winter, violent northeast winds, locally called

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"bora," blow frequently about Novorossisk and Gelendjik, reaching occasionally the force of 79 miles per hour, and causing sudden changes of temperature; they are injurious to health, destructive to vegetation, and dangerous to shipping.

According to meteorological observations made at Novorossisk, the mean yearly temperature is + 51°.08 F.; highest summer temperature is + 94°.10 F.; lowest winter temperature — 14°.98 F. The average yearly rainfall, 43 inches; whereas at Soteba, in the southern part of the district, not subject to the "bora," the mean yearly temperature is + 59°.54 F.; highest summer temperature is + 88°.88 F.; lowest winter temperature is + 17°.42 F.; the average yearly rainfall, 95.3 inches.

Owing to sudden and frequent transitions from cold to heat, rank vegetation, superfluity of moisture, and the secluded position of valleys tending to accumulation of malaria, the climate is generally unhealthy. As in other mountainous localities, here also the air gets more salubrious in proportion to the elevation and the area of cleared and cultivated ground.

POPULATION.

Population here amounts to 15,700, of which about 8,000 inhabit the interior, 1,005 the town of Novorossisk, forming the center of local administration, and 6,500 Anape, the most important shipping place. The only two towns of the district thus absorb nearly 50 per cent. of the entire population. As regards nationality, the colonists settled in the interior consist of 3,797 Russians, 1,253 Greeks, 906 Czekhs, 821 Moldavians, 665 Aborigines, 658 Armenians, and 102 Germans. Counting but 6.06 inhabitants to the square mile, it is the least densely populated province in the Caucasus.

The government being anxious to colonize the devastated and utterly depopulated territory, commenced, as usually in Russia, by appointing numerous military and civil officers and instituting several custom-house officers along the coast. Cossacks and soldiers on leave designated by way of lottery for colonization were the first colonists, their settlements being made compulsory. Extensive tracts of land were granted to high officials; other tracts were leased or sold to private people. For the first fifteen years, that is, from 1866 to 1881, all immigrants were to be exempt from military service and payment of taxes, and on their arrival in case of need were assisted by a government loan of about $15 per family. Nothwithstanding these privileges and subsidies the country after fifteen years of colonization shows hardly any signs of progress. Within the last six years no influx of fresh settlers has been remarked, and as to the land owners of large estates who commenced farming at the very outset of colonization nearly all have failed and abandoned the territory. Among the laboring classes the least prosperous are the Russians; the more successful, the Czekhs and Greeks.

MORALITY.

There are but two churches in the two mentioned towns and none in the interior. There are six schools, of which five are in the towns and one in the interior. Total number of pupils of the said six schools—148 boys and 89 girls. Isolated from his neighbor for want of communication, deprived of churches, schools, without social ties or amusements, the settler in the interior virtually leads the life of a brutish being. In a state of helplessness to overcome the many natural drawbacks or to ameliorate by his own forces the hostile conditions of a strange country,

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he gradually sinks into a morbid state of apathy or finds his only consolation in drinks. It is true, cases of murder have hardly ever occurred and cases of theft are very rare. This, however, does not exactly speak in favor of superior morality among the settlers, but ought to be ascribed rather to absence of social intercourse, either hostile or friendly, between them, and to their general poverty, never, however, approaching real distress, as even the most indolent settler might always gain his livelihood and find shelter, owing to the abundance of fruit, game, and fish, and the general mildness of the climate.

LAND TENURE.

The total area, 1,555,200 acres, consists of—

	Acres.
Crown lands	898, 187. 4
Estates granted to officials	115, 603. 2
Land sold to private people at $2 per acre	166, 095. 9
Land conditionally granted to private people	11, 110. 5
Land granted to immigrants	364, 203. 0

Only part of the land shown by the last figure may be said to be actually occupied and brought under tillage. All the rest, owned by the crown and absent private people, excepting a few hundred acres, remains in a state of wilderness. The money paid for the 166,095 acres, about $332,190, was to be employed for the construction of roads. The nonfulfillment of this provision, made known to the purchasers of land by the government twelve years ago, forms until this date the object of bitter and just complaints on the part of land owners and settlers.

OCCUPATIONS.

Of the various branches of farming the planting of tobacco yields the most considerable profits. Maize, wheat, and oats are also grown, but not in sufficient quantities to yield a surplus for exportation. A very common occupation in certain localities is to gather fruit in the abandoned Circassians' gardens and exchange the same in the Rouban villages against flour, &c. A few land owners confine themselves to the cultivation of fruit trees, and vine and bee farming, and the results have been very encouraging. Scarcity of hands and want of proper agricultural implements are among the difficulties incurred by every farmer. Besides, being brought up in a steppe country, the laborer had the disadvantage of working under conditions of a mountainous territory so entirely different from those of his home. One of the greatest expenses and difficulties incurred at the very outset of farming is the clearage of land from timber, brushwood, and wild plants—the price of uncleared land being $2 per acre, and the cost of clearing from $12 to $20 per acre. When cleared and rendered cultivable the soil produces fruit, vine, and tobacco, and the land thus brought under cultivation becomes very valuable.

It may be inferred from the above that an economic system of clearage, not too complicated, machinery for extracting stumps and roots, also agricultural and horticultural implements, and tools specially adapted for a hilly territory might be successfully introduced here. The small number of aborigines who were allowed to remain in their native country derive profits from bee farming and trapping the rock marten. A few individuals live almost exclusively by shooting. Fishing is being carried on in various places along the coast and particularly in the bay of Novorossisk. No rent or taxes are exacted for the right of fishing or

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shooting. Some years ago the timber business, though never duly developed, occupied the most prominent place among local enterprises. Several millions of staves and a few cargoes of box-wood were then exported to Marseilles and Liverpool. A forest near the sea-coast was worked with the purpose of supplying the towns of south Russia with timber material for construction and fire-wood. This affair, like so many others, was interrupted and ruined by the blockade of the Black Sea during the last Russo-Turkish war.

COMMUNICATION.

For want of vehicle roads, communication in the interior is still being carried on on horseback as it used to be in the times of the Circassians. The sea coast, though nearly 200 miles long, has not a single safe harbor. The two natural bays of considerable depth and extension inland—Novorossisk and Gelendjik—are, as above stated, subject to occasional northeast winds of sufficient force to prevent vessels from entering the harbor. The several other sea-points offer but open roadsteads, such as Anapa, Voulanka, Tonapse, Sotika, Adler, &c. In consideration of a government subsidy of about $35,000 yearly, the steamers of the Russian Company of Navigation running between Odessa and Batoum are bound to call weekly on each of the above-mentioned points, but communication with the shore depends entirely on weather, wind, and waves. As it is, this country actually remains isolated not only from Russia proper but also from the surrounding provinces of the Caucasus. This isolated position was particularly felt during the last war, when the sea was blockaded by the enemy.

TRADE AND NAVIGATION.

Commerce, though yearly slightly increasing, shows, in regard to quantity and quality of local produce, very slow progress. In examining the figures of export and import, it must be remembered that the rich and fertile lands of the Rouban have their considerable share in the shipping transactions of the Black Sea district.

In the year 1879 the imports from Russia amounted in value to $316,000; the exports to Russia, $600,000; imports from foreign countries, $300; exports to foreign countries, $1,700.

The total number of vessels under Russian flag, inward and outward, 482; under foreign flag, inward and outward, 6.

The staple articles of imports consist of flour, salt, hardware, dry-goods, provisions, &c. The exports comprise wheat, maize, tobacco, fruit, vegetables, wax, honey, salted fish, petroleum, &c. Nearly the whole quantity of wheat, the greatest part of tobacco, and the entire quantity of petroleum, though exported from Anapa and Novorossisk, are the produce of the Kouban.

PROSPECTS OF THE COUNTRY.

By inspecting the map it will be observed that the vast and fertile lands of the Kouban, Stavropol, Terek, as well as those of the southern basins of the Don and the Volga, commercially speaking, naturally must gravitate to this coast, which, washed by the waters of the Black Sea, open to navigation all the year round, alone affords a possible uninterrupted outlet to their produce. It is this geographical position along an open sea that forms the *raison d'être* of the Black Sea district.

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Its present unsatisfactory state, the failure in colonizing it, and the many flagrant abuses and blunders of the local bureaucratic authorities, were lately revealed to the Central Government of the Caucasus, and compelled His Imperial Highness the Grand Duke Michael, in the latter part of 1880, to appoint a special commission of officials, engineers, forest officers, farmers, &c., under the presidence of General Staroselsky, to revise and report on the agricultural and commercial conditions of this territory, and to design as to the best means to be selected for the speediest amelioration of the same. In accordance with the views of the said commission, the government has now decided to build a road in the interior along the coast, which is to be connected with a projected commercial highway commencing at Tonapse, at the seacoast leading over the mountain range into the Kouban, and terminating at Armavir, a station of the Rostoff-Vladikavkaz Railway. It is also projected to build a safe and spacious port at Tonapse, which thus would become the emporium and shipping place not only of this district but also of the northern provinces of the Caucasus and of the southeastern territories of Russia proper, which, in default of a better outlet, are still laboring under the disadvantage of shipping at the ports of the Azoff, never open to navigation during winter.

The realization of these government schemes will demand outlays of heavy sums of money, and it is therefore, not without foundation, doubted, even by the most zealous partisans of the Caucasian administration, whether the projected works will be accomplished in as short a time as desirable unless private enterprise and capital are to contribute to this purpose under due guarantee of government contracts. Although want of communication has proved in many respects highly detrimental to agriculture, industry, and trade, it must be admitted that the main cause of the sluggish progress of colonization in this locality is deeper rooted, and lies in the very economic and financial conditions of the mother country, which somehow succeeded in raising numerous armies and funds in order to conquer and annex this territory, but seems utterly incapable to find a sufficient surplus of hands, capital, and enterprise at home to justify the inordinate sacrifice of treasure and blood at the cost of which the annexation has been accomplished. From what I have seen during my frequent excursions along the coast and in the remotest glens of the mountainous region I can only confirm that the deserted Circassian "aouls," fields and gardens, are getting yearly more and more overgrown with wild plants and deteriorated by the beasts of the forest, and the general aspect of the country reminds rather of a cemetery of an extinct race than of a colony of a coming promising nation.

D. R. PEACOCK,
Consular Agent at Poti and Tiflis.

NOVOROSSISK, CAUCASUS, *February* 5, 1881.

COMMERCE OF SPAIN.

REPORT BY MR. REED, SECRETARY OF LEGATION AT MADRID.

I have thought that a general report on the exports and imports of Spain might be of interest to the United States. To this end I have for some time past been studying the statistical returns of the commerce of the Peninsula and the Balearic Islands which are published monthly in

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the Gaceta de Madrid. Unfortunately, that which we most desire to know—namely, to what countries and to what amount Spain sends her export articles and receives her importations—is not given. These reports simply give the quantity and the value. The latest statistical report which gives a detailed statement of her trade with foreign countries was published in 1876. No doubt the Department is in possession of that report.

EXPORTS.

The export of principal articles from the Peninsula and Balearic Islands during the year 1879 were, according to the reports of the director-general of customs (as compared with the year 1878) as follows:

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Table of exports.

COMPARATIVE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN 1878 AND 1879.

Articles	1878		1879		Increase in 1879.		Decrease in 1879.	
	Quantities.	Value.	Quantities.	Value.	Quantities.	Value.	Quantities.	Value.
		Pesetas.		*Pesetas.*		*Pesetas.*		*Pesetas.*
Oil, common ..... kilogs	24, 614, 227	22, 151, 004	13, 230, 178	11, 864, 257	.....	.....	11, 387, 049	10, 287, 744
Spirits ..... litres	9, 789, 568	5, 179, 875	4, 983, 063	2, 377, 743	.....	.....	5, 332, 586	2, 804, 142
Preserves ..... kilogs	2, 227, 443	1, 161, 886	2, 865, 137	1, 329, 287	.....	.....	179, 391	138, 599
Cork ..... thousands	2, 508, 944	34, 611, 898	1, 291, 202	13, 667, 542	.....	.....	917, 647	21, 364, 356
Cork, in pieces ..... kilogs	2, 745, 058	1, 138, 652	2, 113, 472	1, 057, 211	.....	.....	642, 586	81, 461
Cork, manufactured ..... do	7, 400	6, 925	9, 939	1, 539	6, 639	.....	.....	5, 384
Esparto grass:								
Raw ..... do	39, 901, 888	6, 848, 872	39, 236, 295	6, 671, 791	.....	.....	668, 563	117, 081
Worked ..... do	1, 213, 812	506, 451	1, 269, 347	507, 584	55, 535	4, 133	.....	.....
Aniseseed ..... do	168, 571	101, 143	478, 049	286, 859	309, 478	185, 716	.....	.....
Saffron ..... do	46, 363	2, 161, 967	54, 749	2, 742, 009	8, 171	580, 038	.....	.....
Cummineed ..... do	111, 689	44, 452	156, 594	67, 427	45, 514	22, 965	.....	.....
Pepper, ground ..... do	876, 816	656, 012	667, 618	440, 765	.....	.....	209, 198	216, 907
Almonds ..... do	1, 640, 939	2, 067, 663	6, 249, 407	8, 189, 798	4, 568, 478	6, 122, 135	.....	.....
Nuts ..... do	5, 789, 429	3, 473, 651	7, 464, 767	4, 178, 858	1, 675, 347	705, 207	.....	.....
Ground nuts ..... do	677, 846	249, 940	6, 675, 616	2, 308, 731	5, 417, 770	2, 058, 791	.....	.....
Raisins ..... do	31, 797, 541	27, 548, 257	32, 154, 148	21, 105, 449	.....	.....	1, 243, 393	6, 382, 964
Other dried fruits ..... do	2, 709, 954	775, 898	5, 503, 542	1, 672, 267	2, 793, 588	896, 369	.....	.....
Lemons ..... do	4, 295, 152	765, 485	4, 742, 613	862, 669	499, 481	97, 184	.....	.....
Oranges ..... thousand	796, 057	12, 736, 592	3, 853, 949	55, 088, 551	3, 057, 912	42, 351, 959	.....	.....
Grapes ..... kilogs	11, 804, 005	3, 599, 199	12, 379, 781	3, 895, 780	615, 776	.....	.....	63, 419
Other green fruits ..... do	3, 530, 823	923, 088	6, 229, 095	1, 973, 307	2, 689, 272	1, 050, 219	.....	.....
Cattle ..... head	191, 402	13, 345, 859	124, 436	8, 107, 473	.....	.....	66, 966	5, 238, 386
Canary seed ..... kilogs	317, 808	84, 169	2, 104, 081	547, 058	1, 796, 273	462, 949	.....	.....
Rice ..... do	2, 198, 033	889, 014	1, 543, 324	604, 494	.....	.....	654, 709	194, 520
Oats ..... do	6, 097, 209	822, 386	3, 107, 664	547, 349	.....	.....	2, 989, 635	275, 034
Barley ..... do	3, 935, 641	708, 411	6, 419, 163	1, 216, 830	2, 483, 532	508, 419	.....	.....
Rye ..... do	5, 084, 748	925, 251	3, 576, 005	738, 211	.....	.....	1, 508, 733	187, 040
Wheat ..... do	15, 348, 897	4, 143, 197	2, 055, 257	565, 485	.....	.....	13, 293, 640	3, 577, 712
Wheat flour ..... do	34, 991, 793	12, 245, 500	35, 488, 123	12, 797, 708	496, 330	552, 208	.....	.....
Soap ..... do	4, 232, 630	3, 353, 077	4, 638, 830	4, 174, 040	406, 200	820, 963	.....	.....
Wool, raw ..... do	3, 617, 143	6, 417, 583	3, 834, 456	6, 635, 802	217, 323	218, 219	.....	.....
Vegetables:								
Tares ..... do	1, 929, 105	385, 829	294, 716	58, 933	.....	.....	1, 634, 480	326, 896
Chick peas ..... do	2, 412, 907	2, 047, 778	3, 161, 801	1, 897, 679	.....	.....	250, 138	150, 099
Beans ..... do	965, 175	198, 849	969, 860	213, 466	61, 385	14, 617	.....	.....
French or kidney bean ..... do	168, 151	94, 180	635, 829	222, 399	467, 676	128, 219	.....	.....
Mercury ..... do	1, 364, 592	8, 229, 242	2, 160, 351	12, 788, 778	728, 799	4, 559, 486	.....	.....
Copper bars and plates ..... do	1, 377, 012	1, 678, 421	20, 833, 986	17, 240, 425	19, 456, 974	15, 562, 004	.....	.....

Iron, and implements of iron	do	9,716,269	2,396,050	28,350,756	2,736,704	18,634,487	340,654	
Lead, in bars and sheets	do	90,841,409	46,262,807	100,335,566	50,549,120	9,494,157	4,286,313	
Zinc ore	do	33,552,630	2,011,954	27,612,770	1,507,781			5,919,860	504,173
Copper ore	do	127,259,227	32,295,437	459,576,119	34,162,653	32,316,892	1,867,216		
Iron ore	do	1,315,434,253	13,154,343	1,064,118,389	10,641,184			251,315,864	2,513,159
Other minerals	do	42,301,131	4,772,324	35,575,957	5,378,905		606,581	6,725,174	
Paper	do	1,840,771	2,596,437	1,731,711	2,464,069			109,060	132,368
Vermicelli	do	1,765,384	706,154	1,478,917	591,565			286,467	114,589
Liccorice:									
Extract of	do	748,244	1,047,542	595,747	834,046			152,497	213,496
Raw	do	2,485,787	1,242,966	1,874,705	375,148			611,082	867,818
Salt, common	do	246,580,269	3,888,033	255,847,432	4,076,937	9,257,163	188,904		
Silk, raw	do	10,546	398,951	47,644	2,106,105	37,098	1,707,154		
Wines:									
Ordinary	litres	232,375,530	69,814,658	368,169,123	110,450,704	135,793,593	40,639,046		
Sherries	kilogs	23,447,246	46,883,592	21,020,632	42,040,864			2,456,614	4,842,728
Other wines, termed Generoso	do	11,394,057	17,091,085	17,111,378	25,767,062	5,717,321	8,675,978		
Total			429,314,906		503,899,110		135,214,276		60,630,072
Increase in value in 1879 over 1878									74,584,204

NOTE.—The above values are in pesetas. A peseta is equal to 19.3 cents United States money.

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ANALYSIS.

By the above table it will be seen that the amount of common oil exported decreased from 24,612,277 kilograms in 1870 to 13,280,178 in 1879, a decrease of 11,232,049 kilograms in quantity and of 10,287,744 pesetas in value. Spirits decreased from 9,289,568 liters in 1878 to 3,957,032 in 1879, a decrease in quantity of 5,332,536 liters, and in value of 2,804,142 pesetas. In preserves there was a decrease of from 2,233,443 kilograms in 1878 to 2,063,142 in 1879, a decrease of 170,301 kilograms in quantity and of 138,599 pesetas in value. Cork also decreased from 2,708,944 thousands in 1878 to 1,791,297 thousands in 1879, a decrease in quantity of 917,647 thousands, and in value of 21,364,356 pesetas. There was also a decrease in cork (in pieces) from 2,748,058 kilograms in 1878 to 2,114,222 in 1879, a decrease of 633,836 kilograms in quantity, and of 81,461 pesetas in value. In unclassified cork there was an increase in 1879, over 1878, of 6,659 kilograms but a decrease in value of 5,384 pesetas. Esparto grass (raw) decreased from 30,994,888 kilograms in 1878 to 30,326,325 in 1879, a decrease in quantity of 668,563 kilograms, and in value of 147,081 pesetas. In Esparto grass (worked) there was an increase of from 1,213,812 kilograms in 1878 to 1,268,347 in 1879, an increase in quantity of 55,535 kilograms, and in value of 4,133 pesetas. There was also an increase in aniseseed of 168,521 kilograms in 1878 to 286,829 in 1879, an increase in quantity of 309,528 kilograms, and in value of 185,716 pesetas. Saffron increased from 46,569 kilograms in 1878 to 54,740 in 1879, an increase of 8,171 kilograms in quantity, and of 580,038 pesetas in value. There was also an increase in cuminseed (cominas) of from 111,080 kilograms in 1878 to 156,594 in 1879, an increase in quantity of 45,514 kilograms, and in value of 22,995 pesetas.

In pepper (ground) there was a decrease of from 876,816 kilograms in 1878 to 667,618 in 1879, a decrease of 209,198 kilograms in quantity, and of 216,907 pesetas in value. Almonds increased from 1,680,929 kilograms in 1878 to 6,249,707 in 1879, an increase of 4,568,478 kilograms in quantity, and of 6,122,735 pesetas in value. In nuts there was also an increase of from 5,789,420 kilograms in 1878 to 7,464,767 in 1879, an increase in quantity of 1,675,347 kilograms, and in value of 705,207 pesetas. There was a very large increase in ground-nuts, it being from 657,846 kilograms in 1878 to 6,075,616 in 1879, an increase of 5,417,770 kilograms in quantity, and of 2,058,791 pesetas in value. In raisins there was quite a large decrease, it being from 33,397,541 kilograms in 1878 to 32,154,148 in 1879, a decrease in quantity of 1,243,393 kilograms, and in value 6,382,964 pesetas. There was an increase in all other dried fruits from 2,709,934 kilograms in 1878 to 5,503,542 in 1879, an increase in quantity of 2,793,608 kilograms, and of 896,369 pesetas in value. Lemons increased from 4,297,132 kilograms in 1878 to 4,792,613 in 1879, an increase of 495,481 kilograms in quantity, and in value of 97,184 pesetas.

In oranges there was a large increase, it being from 796,037 thousands in 1878 to 3,823,049 thousands in 1879, an increase of 3,027,012 thousands, in quantity, and of 42,351,959 pesetas in value. Grapes increased in quantity, but decreased in value. In 1878 the amount exported was 11,864,005 kilograms; in 1879 the amount was 12,479,731 kilograms, an increase in quantity of 615,726 kilograms, while the decrease in value was 63,419 pesetas. The increase in all other green fruits was from 3,539,823 kilograms in 1878 to 6,229,095 in 1879, an increase of 2,689,272 kilograms in quantity, and of 1,050,219 pesetas in value.

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In cattle, it will be seen that there was a decrease of from 191,402 head in 1878 to 124,436 head in 1879, a decrease of 66,966 head, and of 5,238,386 pesetas in value. The quantity of canary seed increased from 317,808 kilograms in 1878 to 2,104,081 in 1879, an increase of 1,796,273 kilograms in quantity and of 462,949 pesetas in value. Rice decreased from 2,198,033 kilograms in 1878 to 1,543,324 in 1879, a decrease in quantity of 654,709 kilograms, and in value of 194,520 pesetas. Oats also decreased from 6,097,299 kilograms in 1878 to 3,107,664 in 1879, a decrease of 2,989,635 kilograms in quantity, and of 275,034 pesetas in value. Barley increased from 3,935,631 kilograms in 1878 to 6,419,163 in 1879, an increase of 2,483,532 kilograms in quantity, and of 508,419 pesetas in value. Rye decreased from 5,084,738 kilograms in 1878, to 3,576,005 in 1879, a decrease of 1,508,733 kilograms in quantity, and in value of 187,040 pesetas. In wheat there was a large decrease, it being from 15,348,897 kilograms in 1878 to 2,055,257 in 1879, a decrease in quantity of 13,293,640 kilograms, and of 3,577,712 pesetas in value. Flour increased from 34,991,793 kilograms in 1878 to 35,488,123 in 1879, an increase of 496,330 kilograms in quantity, and in value 552,208 pesetas. Soap also increased from 4,232,630 kilograms in 1878 to 4,638,830 in 1879, an increase in quantity of 406,200 kilograms, and in value of 820,963 pesetas.

The amount of wool (raw) increased from 3,617,133 kilograms in 1878 to 3,834,456 in 1879, an increase of 217,323 kilograms in quantity, and of 218,219 pesetas in value. There was a decrease in tares from 1,929,105 kilograms in 1878 to 294,716 in 1879, a decrease in quantity of 1,634,489 kilograms, and in value of 326,896 pesetas. Chick-peas also decreased from 3,412,937, kilograms in 1878 to 3,162,801 in 1879, a decrease of 250,136 kilograms in quantity, and of 150,099 pesetas in value. Garden beans increased from 905,475 kilograms in 1878 to 969,860 in 1879, an increase of 64,385 kilograms in quantity, and of 14,617 pesetas in value. In French or kidney beans, there was an increase of from 168,153 kilograms in 1878 to 635,829 in 1879, an increase in quantity of 467,676 kilograms, and in value of 128,219 pesetas. Mercury increased from 1,371,552 kilograms in 1878 to 2,100,351 in 1879, an increase of 728,799 kilograms in quantity, and of 4,559,186 pesetas in value.

There was a very large increase in copper (bars and plates), it being from 1,377,012 kilograms in 1878 to 20,833,983 in 1879, an increase of 19,456,971 kilograms in quantity, and of 15,562,004 pesetas in value. In iron and implements of iron there was also an increase of from 9,716,269 kilograms in 1878 to 28,350,756 in 1879, an increase of 18,634,487 kilograms in quantity, and in value of 340,654 pesetas. Lead (in bars and sheets) also increased from 90,841,409 kilograms in 1878 to 100,335,566 in 1879, an increase of 9,494,157 kilograms in quantity and of 4,286,313 pesetas in value. Zinc ore decreased from 33,532,630 kilograms in 1878 to 27,612,770 in 1879, a decrease of 5,919,860 kilograms in quantity, and of 504,173 pesetas in value. Copper ore increased from 427,259,227 kilograms in 1878 to 459,576,119 in 1879, an increase in quantity of 32,316,892 kilograms, and in value of 1,867,216 pesetas. There was a large falling off in iron ore, it being from 1,315,434,253 kilograms in 1878 to 1,064,118,389 in 1879, a decrease of 251,315,864 kilograms in quantity and of 2,513,159 pesetas in value.

In other minerals there was also a decrease in quantity, but an increase in value. The amount in 1878 was 42,301,131 kilograms and valued at 4,772,324 pesetas, and in 1879 the amount was 35,575,957 kilograms and valued at 5,378,905 pesetas, a decrease in quantity of 6,725,174 kilograms and an increase in value of 606,581 pesetas. Paper decreased

from 1,840,771 kilograms in 1878 to 1,731,711 in 1879, a decrease in quantity of 109,060 kilograms, and in value of 132,368 pesetas. Vermicelli decreased from 1,765,384 kilograms in 1878 to 1,478,917 in 1879, a decrease of 286,467 kilograms in quantity, and 114,589 pesetas in value. In licorice (extract of) there was a decrease of from 748,244 kilograms in 1878 to 595,747 in 1879, a decrease of 152,497 kilograms in quantity and of 213,496 pesetas in value. Licorice (raw) also decreased from 2,485,787 kilograms in 1878 to 1,874,705 in 1879, a decrease of 611,082 kilograms in quantity and of 867,818 pesetas in value. Salt (common) increased from 246,590,269 kilograms in 1878 to 255,847,432 in 1879, an increase of 9,257,163 kilograms in quantity, and of 188,904 pesetas in value. Silk (raw) increased from 10,546 kilograms in 1878 to 47,644 in 1879, an increase of 37,098 kilograms in quantity, and of 1,707,154 pesetas in value. The amount of wines (ordinary) increased from 232,375,530 liters in 1878 to 368,169,123 in 1879, an increase of 135,793,593 liters in quantity, and of 40,639,046 pesetas in value. Sherries decreased from 23,477,246 kilograms in 1878 to 21,020,632 in 1879, a decrease in quantity of 2,456,614 kilograms and in value of 4,842,728 pesetas. In other wines, termed "Generoso," there was an increase from 11,394,057 kilograms in 1878 to 17,111,378 kilograms in 1879, an increase of 5,717,321 kilograms in quantity, and of 8,675,978 pesetas in value.

Thus it will be seen that the value of exports in 1879 exceeded that of 1878 by 74,584,204 pesetas. It will also be seen that the greatest falling off was in oil (common), spirits, cattle, rice, oats, rye, wheat, tares, chick-peas, zinc ore, iron ore, paper, vermicelli, licorice (extract of), licorice (raw), and sherries, and that the greatest increase was anise-seed, saffron, almonds, nuts, ground-nuts, lemons, oranges, grapes, canary seed, barley flour, wool (raw), French or kidney beans, mercury, copper (bars), iron and implements of iron, lead (in bars and sheets), copper ore and other minerals, salt (common), silk (raw), wines (ordinary), and other wines termed "Generoso." While there was an increase in wines (common), there was quite a large decrease in sherries. Whether this decrease is owing to the fact that less sherry was manufactured, or whether the demand for it is growing less, I have no means at hand to ascertain; but certain it is that the amount exported has steadily decreased at a considerable rate during the past four years. As already stated at the beginning of my dispatch, I have no data to show to what countries the articles referred to in the above table were sent, but on referring to the reports of 1875 and 1876 (the latest published) I find that the greater part of Spain's exports went to England, France, Germany, Belgium, Denmark, Italy, and Algeria, and I think it may be safely said that those countries have ever since continued to receive the greater part of them.

IMPORTS.

The imports into the Peninsula and the Balearic Islands during the year 1879, according to the reports of the director-general of customs, as compared to 1878, were as follows:

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Table of imports.

COMPARATIVE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN 1878 AND 1879.

Articles.	1878.			1879.			Increase in 1879.			Decrease in 1879.		
	Quantities.	Value.	Customs.	Quantities.	Value.	Customs.	Quantities.	Value.	Customs.	Quantities.	Value.	Customs.
		Pesetas.	*Pesetas.*		*Pesetas.*	*Pesetas.*		*Pesetas.*	*Pesetas.*		*Pesetas.*	*Pesetas.*
Coal and coke.....tons	716,557	21,202,044	1,901,393	873,343	21,833,575	2,091,788	111,786	631,531	190,395	.....	.....	.....
Asphalt, tar, petroleum, &c .....kilogs	10,123,228	1,822,158	41,502	18,945,591	3,417,724	77,849	8,822,363	1,595,566	36,347	.....	.....	.....
Petroleum, less density than 900°.....kilogs	22,577,062	10,524,349	1,241,541	21,014,865	9,435,677	1,155,778	.....	.....	.....	1,562,197	1,088,672	85,763
Glass.....do	3,064,024	2,753,365	657,971	3,898,902	3,287,497	771,608	834,878	534,132	113,637	.....	.....	.....
Steel.....do	463,627	61,366	16,641	1,591,544	190,658	78,796	1,127,917	125,692	62,155	.....	.....	.....
Iron and iron tools...do	59,069,678	13,289,425	4,188,189	81,796,993	14,779,819	4,771,864	22,727,315	1,490,394	583,675	.....	.....	.....
Tin plates.....do	2,333,767	1,804,579	486,739	1,846,499	1,314,523	390,266	.....	.....	.....	487,268	490,056	96,483
Copper and brass...do	547,717	1,069,809	176,074	664,866	1,226,927	206,089	117,149	157,118	30,015	.....	.....	.....
Wire.....do	1,730,428	2,261,218	372,586	5,404,715	2,454,134	409,607	674,287	192,916	37,024	.....	.....	.....
Dye-wood.....do	4,046,600	809,276	9,678	3,357,033	570,691	8,359	.....	.....	.....	689,567	238,582	1,319
Other vegetable products, not specified in tariff.....kilogs	1,259,796	1,574,743	126,272	1,382,600	1,726,650	138,209	122,804	151,907	11,937	.....	.....	.....
Colors and varnishes do	3,293,152	5,229,705	487,400	3,491,284	4,844,824	502,584	198,132	.....	15,184	.....	394,881	.....
Salt, common.....do	2,756,313	55,125	21,469	2,731,914	54,638	20,217	.....	.....	.....	24,399	487	1,192
Chemical products...do	27,803,441	13,385,706	1,912,366	32,252,041	13,986,800	1,904,431	4,448,600	601,034	.....	.....	.....	7,935
Perfumery.....do	119,926	959,489	248,247	135,649	1,043,468	254,265	13,723	83,979	16,018	.....	.....	.....
Cotton, raw.....do	37,928,028	69,619,667	488,981	38,436,958	66,865,947	261,018	508,930	.....	.....	.....	2,753,720	222,063
Cotton thread.....do	256,290	1,518,816	549,403	203,229	1,133,699	419,029	.....	.....	.....	53,061	385,126	130,374
Cotton fabrics.....do	1,210,617	10,755,660	4,066,242	1,148,635	9,631,962	3,652,152	.....	.....	.....	61,982	1,124,598	414,090
Hemp.....do	4,846,962	22,150,345	1,332,781	3,640,858	16,333,084	973,713	.....	.....	.....	1,206,045	5,817,261	359,068
Linen fabrics.....do	613,946	3,905,904	865,446	584,468	3,925,538	911,447	.....	19,634	46,001	29,478	.....	.....
Wool, raw.....do	1,729,665	6,484,669	354,737	1,585,815	5,296,108	284,891	.....	.....	.....	143,850	1,188,561	69,846
Woolen fabrics.....do	1,783,130	22,845,801	6,316,430	1,769,717	23,445,696	5,703,119	.....	619,895	.....	13,413	.....	613,311
Silk, raw.....do	141,582	7,097,221	199,659	128,443	5,783,843	160,444	.....	.....	.....	16,139	1,313,378	39,215
Silk fabrics.....do	78,042	6,580,257	1,033,264	76,413	6,362,228	978,138	.....	.....	.....	1,629	218,029	55,126
Mixed fabrics.....do	263,377	3,024,853	711,974	313,539	3,442,865	759,579	50,162	418,012	47,608	.....	.....	.....
Paper.....do	3,625,445	1,496,133	666,110	4,817,492	6,308,677	823,867	1,192,047	1,812,544	157,757	.....	.....	.....
Timber.....M feet	26,502	32,281,456	1,475,336	14,852	23,977,656	1,285,684	.....	.....	.....	11,710	.....	.....
Do.....meters	297,568			277,853			.....	.....	.....	19,715	.....	.....
Do.....No	.....			.....			.....	.....	.....	.....	8,303,800	189,652
Do.....kilogs	3,803,472			6,042,268			2,238,796	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Furniture.....do	1,355,705	2,465,013	413,620	1,521,213	2,784,368	466,206	164,510	319,355	52,586	.....	.....	.....
Live stock.....head	116,058	2,433,598	298,756	165,748	5,752,136	594,140	49,690	3,318,538	295,384	.....	.....	.....
Hides.....kilogs	6,844,146	16,209,348	1,450,410	7,526,849	16,146,570	1,285,749	682,703	.....	.....	.....	62,778	164,661
Machinery.....do	10,417,644	14,672,077	729,967	13,644,069	17,759,615	858,667	2,926,365	3,087,538	128,700	.....	.....	.....
Carriages, and parts of.No	426	.....	.....	280	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	146	.....	.....

Table of imports—Continued.

COMPARATIVE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN 1878 AND 1879—Continued.

Articles.	1878.			1879.			Increase in 1879.			Decrease in 1879.		
	Quantities.	Values.	Customs.	Quantities.	Values.	Customs.	Quantities.	Values.	Customs.	Quantities.	Values.	Customs.
		Pesetas.	*Pesetas.*		*Pesetas.*	*Pesetas.*		*Pesetas.*	*Pesetas.*		*Pesetas.*	*Pesetas.*
Carriages, and p'ts of..kilogs	825, 545	1, 203, 055	302, 265	165, 588	952, 242	233, 922	.....	.....	.....	659, 957	250, 813	68, 343
Vessels .....No	11	.....	.....	12	.....	.....	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Do .....tons	3, 224	1, 153, 182	116, 557	1, 652	619, 872	35, 745	.....	.....	.....	1, 572	533, 310	80, 812
Codfish (bacalao) ..kilogs	35, 393, 024	17, 220, 626	6, 178, 028	40, 061, 775	19, 301, 466	7, 010, 810	4, 668, 751	2, 080, 840	832, 782	.....	.....	.....
Barley, rye, and maize, kilogs	21, 468, 053	4, 213, 609	667, 190	71, 383, 867	14, 272, 662	2, 284, 291	49, 915, 814	10, 059, 053	1, 617, 101	.....	.....	.....
Wheat .....kilogs	60, 192, 836	16, 252, 065	2, 600, 128	119, 328, 220	32, 572, 032	5, 153, 976	59, 135, 384	16, 319, 967	2, 553, 848	.....	.....	.....
Flour .....do..	4, 036, 369	1, 631, 728	261, 558	18, 117, 031	7, 531, 794	1, 174, 982	14, 080, 662	5, 897, 066	913, 424	.....	.....	.....
Sugar .....do...	29, 227, 003	22, 311, 280	6, 241, 203	33, 372, 677	24, 473, 053	6, 476, 062	4, 145, 674	2, 161, 773	234, 859	.....	.....	.....
Cacao .....do ..	4, 937, 244	8, 734, 701	2, 910, 258	6, 001, 212	11, 003, 881	3, 250, 974	1, 063, 968	2, 269, 180	340, 716	.....	.....	.....
Coffee .....do ..	3, 092, 752	6, 229, 769	949, 274	3, 655, 837	7, 498, 159	1, 210, 134	563, 085	1, 268, 390	260, 860	.....	.....	.....
Cinnamon .....do..	315, 236	1, 381, 042	322, 380	287, 451	1, 056, 978	289, 057	.....	.....	.....	27, 785	324, 064	33, 323
Brandy .....hectoliters	138, 379	9, 683, 595	2, 336, 458	349, 949	24, 711, 330	6, 177, 844	211, 570	15, 027, 735	3, 841, 386	.....	.....	.....
Wine .....liters	464, 597	901, 711	117, 420	533, 131	851, 806	67, 239	68, 534	.....	.....	.....	49, 905	50, 181
Buttons .....kilogs	244, 724	1, 223, 655	271, 429	213, 500	1, 067, 500	220, 468	.....	.....	.....	31, 224	156, 155	50, 961
Braid..... do..	198, 452	2, 280, 576	631, 629	182, 094	2, 259, 518	591, 248	.....	.....	.....	7, 358	21, 058	40, 381
In other articles	.....	397, 750, 429	56, 731, 035	.....	443, 268, 984	66, 375, 705	.....	70, 233, 789	12, 418, 799	.....	24, 715, 234	2, 774, 099
	.....	.....	10, 837, 416	.....	.....	11, 867, 846	.....	.....	1, 030, 430	.....	.....	.....
	.....	397, 750, 429	67, 568, 421	.....	443, 268, 984	78, 243, 551	.....	77, 233, 789	13, 449, 229	.....	24, 715, 234	2, 774, 099
Increase in value of imports as compared with 1878.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	45, 518, 555	.....	.....	.....	.....
Increase in duties as compared with 1878.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	10, 675, 130	.....	.....	.....

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ANALYSIS.

As will be seen by the above table, the amount of coal and coke imported increased from 716,557 tons (1,000 kilograms) in 1878 to 873,343 tons in 1879, an increase in quantity of 111,786 tons, in value of 631,531 pesetas, and of 190,395 pesetas in duties. There was also an increase in the amount of asphalt, tar, petroleum, &c., of from 10,123,228 kilograms in 1878 to 18,945,591 in 1879, an increase of 8,822,363 kilograms in quantity, of 1,595,566 pesetas in value, and of 36,347 pesetas in duties. There was a falling off in petroleum of less density than 900° (*grados*) of from 22,577,002 kilograms in 1878 to 21,014,865 in 1879, a decrease in quantity of 1,562,197 kilograms, in value of 1,088,672 pesetas, and 85,763 pesetas in duties. Glass increased from 3,064,024 kilograms in 1878 to 3,898,902 in 1879, an increase of 834,878 kilograms in quantity, of 534,132 pesetas in value, and of 113,037 pesetas in duties. Steel increased from 463,627 kilograms in 1878 to 1,591,544 in 1879, an increase of 1,127,917 kilograms in quantity, of 125,692 pesetas in value, and of 62,155 pesetas in duties. Iron and iron tools also increased from 59,069,678 kilograms in 1878 to 81,796,993 in 1879, being an increase of 22,727,315 kilograms in quantity, of 1,490,394 pesetas in value, and of 583,675 pesetas in duties. In tins (plates) there was a large decrease, it being from 2,333,767 kilograms in 1878 to 1,846,499 in 1879, a decrease of 487,268 kilograms in quantity, of 490,056 pesetas in value, and of 96,483 pesetas in duties. Copper and brass increased from 547,717 kilograms in 1878 to 664,866 in 1879, an increase of 117,149 kilograms in quantity, of 157,118 pesetas in value, and of 30,015 pesetas in duties. In wire there was also an increase of from 4,730,428 kilograms in 1878 to 5,404,715 in 1879, an increase of 674,287 kilograms in quantity, of 192,916 pesetas in value, and of 37,024 pesetas in duties. The amount of dye-wood decreased from 4,046,600 kilograms in 1878 to 3,357,033 in 1879, a decrease of 689,567 kilograms in quantity, of 238,582 pesetas in value, and of 1,319 pesetas in duties. The amount of other vegetable products not specified in the tariff also increased from 1,259,796 kilograms in 1878 to 1,382,600 in 1879, an increase of 122,804 kilograms in quantity, of 151,907 pesetas in value, and of 11,937 pesetas in duties. Colors and varnishes increased from 3,293,152 kilograms in 1878 to 3,491,284 in 1879, an increase in quantity of 198,132 kilograms, but a decrease, as will be seen by the table, of 394,881 pesetas in value, and an increase in duties of 15,184 pesetas. Salt (common) decreased from 2,756,313 kilograms in 1878 to 2,731,914 in 1879, a decrease in quantity of 24,399 kilograms, of 487 pesetas in value, and of 1,192 pesetas in duties.

The amount of chemical products increased from 27,803,441 kilograms in 1878 to 32,552,041 in 1879, an increase of 4,448,600 kilograms in quantity and of 601,034 pesetas in value, but there was a falling off of 7,935 pesetas in duties. In perfumery there was an increase of from 119,926 kilograms in 1878 to 133,649 in 1879, an increase of 13,723 kilograms in quantity, of 83,979 pesetas in value, and of 16,018 pesetas in duties. The amount of cotton (raw) increased from 37,928,028 kilograms in 1878 to 38,436,958 in 1879, an increase in quantity of 508,930 kilograms, but as will be seen by reference to the table there was a decrease in value 2,753,720 pesetas and of 222,063 pesetas in duties. Cotton thread decreased from 256,290 kilograms in 1878 to 203,229 in 1879, a decrease in quantity of 53,061 kilograms, of 385,126 pesetas in value, and of 130,374 pesetas in duties. Cotton fabrics decreased from 1,210,617

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kilograms in 1878 to 1,148,635 in 1879, a decrease of 61,982 kilograms in quantity, of 1,124,598 pesetas in value, and of 414,090 pesetas in duties.

Hemp decreased to a considerable extent. In 1878 the amount imported was 4,846,903 kilograms, while in 1879 it only reached 3,640,858, a decrease of 1,206,045 kilograms in quantity, of 5,817,261 pesetas in value, and of 359,068 pesetas in duties. Linen fabrics also decreased from 613,946 in 1878 to 584,468 kilograms in 1879, a decrease in quantity of 29,478; there was an increase, however, in value, of 19,634 pesetas and of 46,001 pesetas in duties. The amount of wool (raw) decreased from 1,729,665 kilograms in 1878 to 1,585,815 in 1879, being a decrease in quantity of 143,850 kilograms, of 1,188,561 pesetas in value, and of 69,846 pesetas in duties. Woolen fabrics also decreased from 1,783,130 kilograms in 1878 to 1,769,717 in 1879, a decrease in quantity of 13,413 kilograms, but there was an increase in value of 619,895 pesetas. The duties, however, on these articles decreased 613,311 pesetas. The amount of silk (raw) decreased from 144,582 kilograms in 1878 to 128,443 in 1879, a decrease in quantity of 16,139 kilograms, of 1,313,378 pesetas in value, and of 39,215 pesetas in duties. Silk fabrics also decreased from 78,042 kilograms in 1878 to 76,413 in 1879, a decrease of 1,629 kilograms in quantity, of 218,029 pesetas in value, and of 55,126 pesetas in duties. The amount of mixed fabrics increased from 263,377 kilograms in 1878 to 313,539 in 1879, an increase in quantity of 50,162 kilograms, of 408,012 pesetas in value, and of 47,608 pesetas in duties.

There was also a large increase in the amount of paper imported, it being from 3,625,445 kilograms in 1878 to 4,817,492 in 1879, an increase of 1,192,047 kilograms in quantity, of 1,812,544 pesetas in value, and of 157,757 pesetas in duties. Timber increased from 3,803,472 kilograms in 1878 to 6,042,268 in 1879, an increase in quantity of 2,238,796 kilograms, but there was a decrease in value of 8,303,800 pesetas and of 189,652 pesetas in duties. There was an increase in furniture from 1,355,705 kilograms in 1878 to 1,521,215 in 1879, an increase of 164,510 kilograms in quantity, of 319,355 pesetas in value, and of 52,586 pesetas in duties. The number of live stock increased from 116,058 head in 1878 to 165,748 head in 1879, an increase of 49,690 head, of 3,318,538 pesetas in value, and of 295,384 pesetas in duties. In hides there was also a large increase, it being from 6,844,146 kilograms in 1878 to 7,526,849 in 1879, an increase in quantity of 682,703 kilograms. It will be seen, however, by reference to the table, that there was a decrease in the value of the hides of 62,778 pesetas, and of 164,661 pesetas in duties. The amount of machinery increased from 10,717,644 kilograms in 1878 to 13,644,009 in 1879, an increase of 2,926,365 kilograms in quantity, of 3,087,538 pesetas in value, and of 128,700 pesetas in duties. Carriages and parts of carriages decreased from 825,545 kilograms in 1878 to 165,588 in 1879, a decrease of 659,957 kilograms in quantity, of 250,813 pesetas in value, and of 68,343 pesetas in duties. In vessels there was an increase of from 11 in 1878 to 12 in 1879, while in tons measurement there was a decrease from 3,224 tons to 1,652 tons, a decrease of 1,572 tons, of 533,310 pesetas in value, and of 80,812 pesetas in duties. In codfish ("bacaloa") there was a large increase, it being from 35,393,024 kilograms in 1878 to 40,061,775 in 1879, an increase of 4,668,751 kilograms in quantity, of 2,080,840 pesetas in value, and of 832,782 pesetas in duties. There was also a very large increase in barley, rye, and maize. In 1878 the amount imported was 21,468,053 kilograms, while in 1879 the amount reached 71,383,867, an increase of 49,915,814 kilograms in quantity, of 10,059,053 pesetas in value, and of 1,617,101 pesetas in duties. In the amount of wheat imported there was a still greater in-

crease, it being from 60,192,836 kilograms in 1878 to 119,328,220 in 1879, an increase of 59,135,384 kilograms in quantity, of 16,319,967 pesetas in value, and of 2,553,848 pesetas in duties.

There was also a large increase in flour. The amount imported during 1878 was 4,036,369 kilograms; in 1879 it was 18,117,031, an increase in quantity of 14,080,662 kilograms, in value 5,897,066 pesetas, and of 913,424 pesetas in duties. The amount of sugar also increased from 29,227,003 kilograms in 1878 to 33,372,677 in 1879, an increase of 4,145,674 kilograms in quantity, of 2,161,773 pesetas in value, and of 234,859 pesetas in duties. Cacao increased from 4,937,244 kilograms in 1878 to 6,001,212 in 1879, an increase in quantity of 1,063,968 kilograms, of 2,269,180 pesetas in value, and of 340,716 pesetas in duties. The amount of coffee also increased from 3,092,752 kilograms in 1878 to 3,655,837 in 1879, an increase of 563,085 kilograms in quantity, of 1,268,390 pesetas in value, and of 260,860 pesetas in duties. Cinnamon decreased from 315,236 kilograms in 1878 to 287,451 in 1879, a decrease of 27,785 kilograms in quantity, of 324,064 pesetas in value, and of 33,323 pesetas in duties.

There was a large increase in the amount of brandy imported—it being from 138,379 hectoliters in 1878 to 349,949 in 1879, an increase of 211,570, hectoliters in quantity, of 15,027,735 pesetas in value, and of 3,841,386 pesetas in duties. The amount of wines also increased in quantity, but decreased in value and in duties. In 1878, 464,597 liters were imported; in 1879, 533,131, an increase of 68,534 liters in quantity, but a decrease (as will be seen by reference to the table) of 49,905 pesetas in value, and of 50,181 pesetas in duties. Buttons decreased from 244,724 kilograms in 1878 to 213,500 in 1879, a decrease in quantity of 31,224 kilograms, of 156,155 pesetas in value, and 50,961 pesetas in duties. Braid also decreased from 189,452 kilograms in 1878 to 182,094 in 1879, a decrease of 7,358 kilograms in quantity, of 21,058 pesetas in value, and of 40,381 pesetas in duties. The customs receipts on all other articles increased from 10,837,416 pesetas in 1878 to 11,867,846 in 1879, an increase of 1,030,430 pesetas.

The greatest increase in imports was in coal and coke, asphalt, tar, petroleum (crude), glass, steel, iron and iron tools, copper, brass, wire (products not specified in tariff), chemicals, perfumery, cotton (raw), mixed fabrics, paper, timber, furniture, live stock, hides, machinery codfish, barley, rye and maize, wheat, flour, sugar, cacao, coffee, brandy and wines. The greatest decrease was in petroleum of less density than 900 degrees, tin (in plates), dye-wood, cotton thread, cotton fabrics, hemp, wool, woolen fabrics, silk (raw), silk fabrics, carriages and parts of carriages, vessels, cinnamon, buttons, and braid.

The total value of imports for the year 1878 was 397,750,429 pesetas. In 1879 it was 443,268,984, an increase of 70,233,789 pesetas. The total amount of duties received in 1878 was 67,568,421 pesetas; in 1879 the amount was 78,243,551, an increase of 10,675,130 pesetas.

The value of exports exceeded that of the imports by 60,630,126 pesetas.

As in regard to the exports, the reports do not show from what countries the imports come, but judging from the last published statement (1876) it would seem that the greater amount come from England, France, Germany, Belgium, Denmark, Italy, and Algeria.

I have also examined the reports of the director general of customs for the first six months of 1880, as compared with the same months of the year 1879. I will only state here the general result.

The value of exports is 324,685,279 pesetas. In 1879 for the same

period it was 240,575,326, thus showing an increase of 84,109,953 pesetas.

The principal articles of increase were oil (common), preserves, cork (in pieces), esparto grass (raw), saffron, pepper (ground), unclassified articles, lemons, oranges, live stock, canary seed, rice, oats, barley, rye, wheat, flour, vegetables, iron and iron implements, zinc ore, copper ore, iron ore, other minerals, paper, liquorice (extract and raw), salt (common), silk (raw), wines (common), and other wines (termed "generoso").

The principal articles of decrease were spirits, corks, cork (unclassified), esparto grass (worked), anise seed, cumin seed, almonds, nuts, ground nuts. There was scarcely any difference in raisins. In 1879 there were 4,345,716 kilograms and 4,345,709 in 1880, grapes, unclassified fruits, soap, copper (bars and plates), lead (bars and sheets), vermicelli, and sherries.

IMPORTS.

The principal articles of increase were coal and coke, asphalt, tar, iron and iron tools, copper and brass (other vegetable products not specified in the tariff), colors, varnishes, salt (common), chemicals, cotton (raw), cotton thread, hemp, linen fabrics, woolen fabrics, silk (raw), mixed fabrics, timber, furniture, machinery, carriages and parts of carriages, vessels, codfish, barley, rye, maize, cacao, cinnamon, brandy, wines, and braids.

The principal articles of decrease were crude petroleum, petroleum refined, glass, steel, tin (in plates), dye-wood, perfumery, cotton fabrics, silk fabrics, paper, live stock, hides, wheat (a very large decrease, it being from 100,278,980 kilograms to 23,954,038), flour from 11,860,433 kilograms to 3,238,197, sugar from 19,879,341 kilograms to 14,759,987, coffee, wines, and buttons.

The value of the exports exceeded that of the imports by 34,192,393 pesatas, while the amount of duties increased from 45,493,191 to 47,470,616 pesetas, an increase of 1,977,425 pesetas.

EXPORTS TO THE UNITED STATES.

Judging from the latest statistical statement published it would seem that the chief articles of export to the United States are wine, liquorice root, cork, salt, rags, lead, ores, dried fruits, olives and olive oil. Of these articles it may be said that the bulk of sherry wine is shipped from Cadiz, red wines from Tarragona and Barcelona, sweet wines from Malaga, and olives and olive oil from Seville. Salt is also shipped in large quantities from Cadiz.

IMPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES.

The chief articles imported from the United States would seem to be petroleum (crude and refined), staves, spirits, lard, cotton, timber, wheat, Indian corn and other grain, fancy goods, and hardware.

As will be seen by reference to the table, there was a large decrease in the importation of refined petroleum. This no doubt is owing to the fact of the very high duties levied on this article, and also to the growing belief that crude petroleum may be refined in Spain. At the present time there are two refineries in operation, or in the course of opera-

tion, one at Santander, the other in Seville, established by the Messrs. Rothschild & Co., of Paris.

The amount of spirits imported during 1879 increased largely over the amount imported in 1878, and although the German spirits, through its superior manufacture, has almost entirely absorbed the consumption of the wine-trade districts, I am informed that there has lately appeared an American brand called Eagle, which, though not so well refined as the German, gives general satisfaction, and would undoubtedly obtain a large demand at Cadiz, Malaga, Seville, Valencia, Tarragona, and Barcelona if more care were given to refining the article. A short time ago this brand could be sold, duty paid, on the wharf at Cadiz, at $94 per 516 liters, while the German spirits sold at the same time at $113 for the same number of liters.

American timber being much superior to the Swedish and Russian, I see no reason why this important article of our exports should not attain ascendancy over the European, especially so if the Spanish tariffs were remodeled.

In consequence of the recent Spanish custom-house regulations ordering that lard, butter, ham, &c., coming from the United States must be analyzed previously to their being allowed a free sale, the transactions formerly done in these articles have suffered a good deal for, besides the high fee paid for such analysis, there is the natural delay in the process. Consequently a large quantity of American lard instead of being imported directly from the United States, is brought from London or Liverpool, which naturally lessens the importation on account of the increased expenses thereby incurred.

Should the exorbitant duties on hoop iron be lowered there is no reason why this article of our exports should not, along with staves, meet with a ready market in the wine-trade districts.

Before closing it may be well to remark that besides the enormous duties prevailing in the peninsula and adjacent islands there is another cause which prevents, to a great extent, the natural sending of our exports to this country. This cause is that the import trade is done principally in sailing vessels. The intricacy of the Spanish customs regulations is also a great drawback—and even if the benefit of the most favored nation clause were to be given to us, it would still be necessary to remodel those regulations.

DWIGHT T. REED.

LEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES,
Madrid, Spain.

FINANCE IN VIENNA.

REPORT BY MR. DELAPLAINE, SECRETARY OF LEGATION.

The banks in Vienna (exclusive of the Austro-Hungarian National Bank) have published their balance-sheets for the year 1880, whereby a comparison of the respective business operations of the nine institutions is afforded.

I beg to inclose herewith to the Department certain extracts from the statements presented, covering the transactions of that and the preceding year. Also, a statement of the dividends declared by the said banks

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during the years 1872 to 1880. The latter indicates with one exception an improving condition of the institutions, especially in regard to the two last mentioned, which have been later organized.

J. F. DELAPLAINE,
Secretary of Legation.

LEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES,
Vienna, April 8, 1881.

[Inclosure to No. 459.]

Banks.	1879.		1880.		Proportion of share capital to the total liabilities.	
	Share capital.	Other liabilities.	Share capital.	Other liabilities.	1879.	1880.
	Million florins.				Percentage.	
Anglo-österr. Bank (Anglo-Austrian Bank)	18.000	28.451	18.000	25.863	38.75	41.04
Allgemeine Depositenbank (General Deposit Bank)	5.000	9.457	5.000	10.365	34.72	32.54
K. k. p. allgem. Verkehrsbank (I. R. Priv. General Traffic Bank)	5.600	4.561	5.600	5.369	55.11	51.05
Oesterr. Creditanstalt (Austrian Credit Institution)	40.000	99.615	40.000	102.264	28.65	28.12
Niederösterr. Escompte-Gesellschaft (Lower Austrian Discount Association)	7.000	45.780	7.000	46.643	15.29	13.05
Unionbank (Union Bank)	15.000	13.783	15.000	16.231	52.11	48.03
Wiener Bankverein (Vienna Banking Association)	8.000	12.145	8.000	10.053	39.71	44.31
Wiener Giro- u. Kassenverein (Vienna Giro and Deposit Association)	3.000	11.431	3.000	13.762	20.79	17.90
Wiener Lombard- u. Escomptebank (Vienna Lombard and Discount Association)	1.200	8.562	1.200	5.990	12.29	16.69
Total	102.800	233.785	102.800	236.540	30.54	30.29
Aggregate	336.585		339.340		.....	

Banks.	Receipts without transfers (Vorträge).		Receipts 1880.
	1879.	1880.	+ or −
	Million florins.		
Anglo-österr. Bank	2.491	2.728	+0.237
Allgemeine Depositenbank	0.938	1.156	+0.218
K. k. priv. allgem. Verkehrsbank	0.860	0.878	+0.018
K. k. priv. österr. Creditanstalt	7.662	7.643	−0.019
Niederösterr. Escompte-Gesellschaft	2.412	2.222	−0.190
Unionbank	2.054	1.857	−0.197
Wiener Bankverein	1.139	1.046	−0.093
Wiener Giro- und Kassenverein	0.649	0.746	+0.097
Wiener Lombard- u. Escomptebank	0.273	0.260	−0.013
Total	18.478	18.536	4 +0.573 5 −0.515
			+0.058

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Banks.	Expenditures. 1879.	Expenditures. 1880.	Expenditures, 1880 + or −
	Million florins.		
Anglo-österr. Bank	0.894	1.613	+0.719
Allgemeine Depositenbank	0.487	0.603	+0.116
K. k. priv. allgem. Verkehrsbank	0.471	0.446	−0.025
K. k. priv. österr. Creditanstalt	2.160	2.080	−0.080
Niederösterr. Escompte-Gesellschaft	1.757	1.547	−0.210
Unionbank	1.037	0.486	−0.551
Wiener Bankverein	0.321	0.315	−0.006
Wiener Giro- u. Kassenverein	0.354	0.431	+0.077
Wiener Lombard- u. Escomptebank	0.115	0.128	+0.013
Total	7.596	7.649	3 + 0.925 5 − 0.872 +0.053

Banks.	Net profits. 1879.	Net profits. 1880.	1880. + or −
	Million florins.		
Anglo-österr. Bank	1.597	1.115	−0.482
Allgemeine Depositenbank	0.451	0.553	+0.102
K. k. priv. allgem. Verkehrsbank	0.389	0.432	+0.043
K. k. priv. österr. Creditanstalt	5.502	5.563	+0.061
Niederösterr. Escompte-Gesellschaft	0.655	0.675	+0.020
Unionbank	1.017	1.371	−0.354
Wiener Bankverein	0.818	0.731	+0.087
Wiener Giro- u. Kassenverein	0.295	0.315	+0.020
Wiener Lombard- u. Escomptebank	0.158	0.132	−0.026
Total	10.882	10.887	6 + 0.600 3 − 0.595 +0.005

Banks.	Dividends per cent. on shares. 1871.	1872.	1873.	1874.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.
Anglo-Bank	27.00	25.00	5.00	5.83	.....	.....	4.17	5.00	7.50	2.50
Deposit-Bank	5.00	11.25	.....	0.50	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.50	7.50	9.00
Verkehrsbank	8.00	10.00	.....	4.28	3.93	5.00	5.00	5.00	6.00	6.07
Creditanstalt	17.50	18.75	5.62	6.87	5.00	1.25	8.12	8.75	11.25	11.25
Escompte-Gesellschaft	16.20	18.50	12.50	9.00	8.00	7.00	8.40	8.60	8.20	8.60
Unionbank	16.50	5.00	.....	5.00	2.86	2.50	3.50	5.00	6.00	7.00
Bankverein	40.00	80.00	.....	5.00	.....	.....	4.00	5.00	9.00	8.00
Giro and Kassenverein	.....	5.50	.....	7.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.25	7.00	8.00
Lomb. and Esc. Bank	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	11.00

THE GREEK QUESTION.

REPORT BY CONSUL DUNCAN, OF SMYRNA.

IMPENDING HOSTILITIES.

On my return to Smyrna from Naples I came via Corfu, Cephalonia, Zante, Patras, and Gulf of Corinth to Athens, stopping over at the latter place five days. I thus had considerable opportunity of seeing what is going on in Greece at present; and as we have no diplomatic or consular

representative at Athens, and as the danger of war between Greece and Turkey seems very imminent, it may not be considered amiss for me to give a brief statement of my impressions. I may remark that it is a question in which I take a most lively interest, and that I therefore lost no opportunity of obtaining reliable information as to the exact state of affairs. In this my slight knowledge of modern Greek, in addition to French and Italian, greatly assisted me. I read the principal newspapers of Athens to whatever party belonging; I spoke with Deputies of Parliament, which is in session; with professors of the university; with officers of the army; and with all who were able to give me information, whenever an opportunity offered; and from all sources I gathered the same impressions; that is, that the Greeks are thoroughly in earnest, and fully resolved on war, if they cannot obtain peaceably the frontier they claim and which was conceded them by the great powers of Europe in the conference at Berlin last summer. Diplomatically the Greeks base their right upon the decision of that conference which Mr. Freycinet, the French minister of foreign affairs, called "an indisputable right," guaranteed by the unanimous decision of the great powers of Europe.

Mr. Comoundouros explains the Greek position to the French minister at Athens as follows:

> The powers not only admitted the necessity of changing the Greek frontier, but actually traced the new frontier. The Greek Government, then, is the faithful executor of the will of the powers. The precedents make it certain that Turkey will never cede Thessaly and Epirus peaceably. It is, then, a grievous, but inevitable, necessity to accept the decision of arms.

Mr. Tricoupis says:

> If Europe wishes to avoid a war the *only* way for her to do so is to take into her own hands the enforcing of the frontier according to what was fixed upon by the conference at Berlin.

The Greeks avow that they are fully resolved on action to enforce their rights, even should they have to act all alone and without hope of assistance from any source. They insist that they have been patient to the utmost limit, trusting to the benevolence and promises of the powers to do them justice. They urge that, in order to be prepared to assist in the execution of the decision of the powers, they have strained the resources and credit of the country beyond what it can possibly bear except on condition of receiving the additional territory claimed; that, having created a large army and excited a warlike spirit among the people, the government could not back down now, even if it desired to do so, without disgrace at home and abroad and certain revolution; and that even defeat would be less dangerous to the future welfare of the country than to retire without an effort to enforce their rights.

These I believe to be briefly but correctly stated, the views of the situation generally entertained by the Greeks. Some papers are more moderate than others, but none oppose action. In Parliament one party opposes the other, not because it would be more moderate or conciliatory, or prudent, but because it would be more active and energetic in preparing for war. In the autumn, when Parliament met, Mr. Comoundouros attacked and defeated the Tricoupis ministry on the ground that it had not been sufficiently energetic in preparing for action; and now Mr. Tricoupis comes forward and attacks the Comoundouros ministry for the very same reason.

MILITARY PREPARATIONS.

I found everywhere, from Corfu to Athens, the most active preparations going on. Troops are drilling from morning to night. Fortifica-

tions are being built to protect the port of Piræus and Athens, and the navy-yard at Salamis. Torpedoes are being purchased, and army supplies being got together at convenient centers. Temporary hospitals and barracks are being erected all around Athens, and even the municipal palace has been turned into a soldiers' hospital.

I had also the opportunity of learning very direct the opinion of the King himself, as expressed while I was at Athens. He, too, like everybody else, is convinced that war is almost absolutely certain, and that it is likely to begin very early in the spring. Nor does either he or the Greeks generally despair of success, even if they are left to act alone, for they seem convinced that there will be insurrectionary movements in different parts of Turkey, not only among the Greeks, but also among the other Christian nationalities, as soon as the hostilities begin. In fact, probably their greatest danger lies in their being oversanguine. I conversed with officers who were full of confidence that they would be quite equal to the Turks single-handed. They admit that their troops are not yet well trained and prepared for war, but contend that the Turks are in general no better prepared. They admit that their financial resources are very poor, but at any rate quite equal to the Turkish. They admit that their commissariat is very badly provided for, but answer you that the Turks hardly have any at all. They insist that the Greeks will fight with much greater enthusiasm for the cause, and will have a great advantage over their enemies in having almost the entire population in Epirus and Thessaly, where the fighting will be in their favor, and bitterly hostile to the Turks. These are views expressed by Greek officers; not my own. I fear their hopes and expectations are too sanguine for realization. The opinion expressed to me by a foreign officer, and one most friendly to the Greeks, who has been sent by his government to observe the organization of the new army, was not by any means so favorable as to the probability of their success.

NEW NEGOTIATIONS.

But until hostilities have actually commenced there remains a hope that some peaceable solution may be arrived at. Fortunately all the great powers seem animated by a most earnest desire to prevent a collision, seeing the danger that, once begun, it cannot be circumscribed, and is likely to open the whole Eastern question again. The Greeks especially have no confidence whatever in the new negotiations about to be undertaken at Constantinople, and certainly, if they do not meet with better success than the last effort of the French Government, they had better not be undertaken at all. So far as the Greeks are concerned there is no doubt that effort has greatly aggravated the situation, and made them much less disposed to listen to the friendly advice of the powers than before. They are especially enraged against Mr. Barthelemy St. Hilaire for endeavoring to change the "*indisputable right* guaranteed by the powers" of Mr. Freycinet into a mere proposition or suggestion conferring no right whatever.

AMERICANS AT ATHENS.

I found the Americans at Athens, consisting for the most part of four or five missionaries with their families, very uneasy about the situation, and greatly disposed to complain of our government for leaving them without any official protection in an emergency like the present. They think the legation ought to be re-established; or if not, that at least

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an agency and consulate-general, like at Bucharest and Cairo, ought to be established and filled at once by some one well acquainted with the East. They contend that the importance of Greece, politically and commercially, should cause our government to always keep a capable representative at Athens, to say nothing of the interest taken in the country by every classic scholar and every traveler to the East. But they insist that now it is especially necessary on account of the danger of the situation, and the very great probability that in case of war important questions will arise between the two governments as to the rights of our citizens. I think that under the circumstances the above statements cannot be regarded as out of place.

B. O. DUNCAN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Smyrna, February 14, 1881.

CONSULAR REPORTS: THEIR BENEFIT TO TRADE.

REPORT BY MR. FISH, CHARGÉ D'AFFAIRES AT BERNE, SWITZERLAND.

I have the honor to transmit herewith the first number of the new volume of Swiss consular reports, which contains the annual reports of the consuls at San Francisco, Odessa, and Liverpool for 1880.

Mr. Berton, the Swiss consul at San Francisco, a native of the vine-growing neighborhood of Geneva, furnishes some interesting comments concerning California's cereal products; but by far the most important and valuable portion of his report is that relating to the cultivation of the vine. His opinion is valuable as that of a competent and unprejudiced expert. He predicts "a great future for it," and says that the day will come "when we shall send wine to Europe." He also recommends to his countrymen the selection of California as a suitable place of settlement for good vine-dressers, and, with characteristic foresight, adds, "on condition that they do not arrive here completely destitute of means."

This suggestion of Consul Berton has prompted me to write to Mr. de Haller, président de la Société Agricole de la Suisse Romane, to inquire whether there are special facilities in this country for the instruction of vinose agriculture. I believe that many of our large vineyard proprietors could advantageously send their sons to this country for a short course of instruction in this important and growing branch of agriculture. I shall report to you the result of my inquiries.

I have no desire or intention of trespassing on the domain of our consul at Odessa, whose able and interesting reports have attracted such deserved and world-wide attention, but I have been struck by the very able analysis which the Swiss consul at that port has made of the trade for 1880. In speaking of the competition between Russian and American wheat he says: "The American wheat in 1880 formally excluded the Russian from the London market, and even from that of the continent." He mentions the shipment of Russian wheat from Bessarabia and Podolia, Königsberg and Dantzig. It occurs to me, with but a superficial knowledge of the matter, that the transportation for so long a distance, either by land or by water, should enable us to supply those markets more cheaply than can be done from either of those provinces. Such would undoubtedly be the case had we a merchant marine such as

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we had when the Yankee skipper dropped his anchor in every port of the world.

Mr. Trithen gives the decrease in exportation of grain from Odessa alone, in 1880, as compared with 1879, as 3,082,487 tchetverts, and the total value of exports decreased from 65,652,088 rubles in 1879, to 41,991,373 rubles in 1880, a decrease of 23,660,715 rubles.

Mr. Trithen bears impartial testimony to the superiority of American over English agricultural implements, musical instruments, and locksmith work: "The American machines," says Consul Trithen, "are beginning to be preferred to the English on account of their greater perfection; the same is true of their musical instruments, locksmith work, and various other articles."

He also mentions an importation of two ship-loads of wool, being the first received at Odessa, which created consternation among the wool-growers of that neighborhood.

I have no doubt that Consul Dyer has reported these facts to the Department with that promptness and thoroughness which stamps his conduct of the business of the consulate, but I believe that it may not be uninteresting to the readers of our newly instituted and greatly needed trade reports to have the unbiased testimony of a consul of a foreign power, who, both by his position at the center of the Russian wheat-trade and by his ability, is competent to judge of these matters.

Would it not be well to supply the legation with some of our trade reports for distribution here? I could place a number of them where they would be appreciated, and where they may possibly tend to develop trade with the United States.

I inclose translations of extracts from the reports of the Swiss consuls at Odessa and San Francisco.

NICHOLAS FISH,
Chargé d'Affaires.

LEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES,
Berne, Switzerland, March 14, 1881.

[Extracts from the annual report of Mr. Francois Berton, Swiss consul at San Francisco, for 1880, to his government, dated January 17, 1881.—Translation.]

United States wheat.— * * * In the interior of the country the condition of affairs is much better than at San Francisco, for the abundance of the grain crop in 1880 was without precedent; it is estimated at 1,400,000 tons, which would leave us from 800,000 to 1,000,000 tons of grain for exportation.

Such a production is well calculated to restore prosperity in this country, and we will feel its effects in San Francisco when a good portion of the grain shall have left the country. A large number of vessels are loading grain, but the present prices in Europe do not leave much margin for producers, and many are holding back awaiting a rise.

Wines and grape-culture in California.—In my last report I mentioned the grape-culture, which is every year extending in California. As in the case of grain products, the year 1880 was exceptionally favorable to the vine. The importance of the wines of California increases annually; not only does the local consumption increase, but the demand from the East is considerable, and we will some day supply some to Europe; we also find in all the agricultural counties an increased planting of vines; the persons who understand this culture are much appreciated, and an immigration of Swiss vine-dressers would find good employment. I asked several large proprietors concerning the production of last year. According to them it was from 8,000,000 to 10,000,000 gallons, or from 32,000,000 to 40,000,000 liters, and a large number of boxes of grapes were sent East.

It should not, however, be supposed that our vines are free from the phylloxera; that terrible insect has appeared in the counties of Sonoma, Napa, Solano, and Yolo; but in a rather mild degree, for our vines appear to resist the phylloxera better than those of France.

The report of the surveyor-general mentions 77,738 acres as planted with vines in 1879, and indicated the production of 7,790,000 gallons of wine. The production in 1880 is estimated by the Alta California as follows:

	Gallons.
Napa County	2,200,000
Los Angelos County	2,000,000
Sonomo County	1,800,000
Other counties	4,500,000
Total	10,500,000

It will be understood that this abundance of native wines will injure the importation of European wines; the latter diminishes each year, for it is sought to imitate the imported wines, and you will find at all the dealers imitations of Bordeaux, Burgundy, sherry, and port, which, though not possessing the fine qualities of the genuine wines, are not disagreeable to the taste, and can be delivered at very moderate prices.

Nevertheless the annual consumption of French wines in California can be reckoned at 4,000 or 5,000 casks of 60 gallons each; that of sherry is from 40,000 to 50,000 gallons. Bordeaux and sherry are the table wines generally preferred.

California barley.— * * * The barley crop in 1880 is estimated at 5,000,000 hundred weight; this product is much fancied in the East; our barley is superior for making beer and the demand is steady. The countries surrounding the bay produce the most.

* * * * * * *

Emigration from Switzerland.—I do not wish to encourage my countrymen to emigrate *en masse*, but I believe that good agricultural laborers, and especially vine-dressers, can make for themselves a successful future, but on condition that they do not arrive here completely without means. While working for some time for others they can examine the country and select the locality which shall appear most suited to them.

California vineyards.—I believe that the cultivation of the vine has a great future before it; all the proprietors of vineyards made money last year. Among others I cite one, a German, whom I know, who owns a fine vineyard at Santa Helena, in Napa County. He sold last autumn his crop on the spot for $12,500, and his outlay during the year amounted to only $2,500, leaving a net profit of $10,000. The current price of grapes has been $20 a ton for ordinary, and from $25 to $30 for grapes from foreign plants.

[The report is published as a supplement to the Feuille Fédérale Suisse of March 12, 1881.]

[Extract from the annual report of the Swiss consul at Odessa for the year 1880, dated February 7, 1881.—Translation.]

EFFECT OF COMPETITION OF AMERICAN WHEAT ON THE ODESSA WHEAT TRADE.

To the High Federal Council:

* * * The competition of American grain with that of Russia continues to preoccupy the farmers as well as the merchants; in 1880 American wheat formally excluded the Russian from the London market, and even from that of the continent. The means of contending against this dangerous competitor are constantly being sought, but the contest is too unequal, for frankly the means of communication, the improvement of harbors, the facilities of loading, and the widening of river channels are not sufficient to inspire the hope of success; more is needed, and, above all, more application to work. Now that is what is lacking in the Russian people, and it will be lacking as long as the number of holidays is not materially decreased. How can they expect to compete with a nation which, excepting Sundays, has but two holidays in the year, Christmas and Easter (*sic*), while I might cite fifty holidays in vogue among all the rural population of Russia. If we also remember that each festive holiday has its next day on which the peasant is unable to work, on account of the result of drinking too much liquor the previous night, we must admit that each holiday is in reality a double loss both of time and money. Will this reform, the abolition of a large number of holidays, be instituted? It is doubtful.

The large army which Russia maintains serves to render the contest still more unequal; a million of soldiers ruin her finances and produce nothing; with so many arms and intellects taken away from agriculture, from trade, from commerce, and from science, there is no doubt that the victory must remain with the United States of America.

The exportation of cereals in 1880 amounted to only 4,170,984 tchetverts. In 1879 it was 7,253,471 tchetverts; decrease in 1880, 3,082,487 tchetverts.

On the basis that the other ports of the Black Sea and Sea of Azof have experienced

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a like difference of about 50 per cent., it is permissible to estimate approximately the decrease in the total amount exported in 1880 at about 10,000,000 tchetverts, representing an amount of capital of about 100,000,000 rubles, which is taken from our farmers; from this an idea of the deplorable situation of the agricultural classes can be formed; this could only be remedied by a good crop, but unfortunately we are still far from the next harvest time. In the meanwhile misery is claiming her victims.

There are but Podolia and Bessarabia that have not had occasion to complain of the result of the last crops, but Odessa has benefited but little from them; the bulk of the grain of Podolia crossed the Austrian frontier at Volotchysk; some of it went to Königsberg and Dantzig. Bessarabia could send to Odessa but an inconsiderable portion of her products, the river navigation having occasioned many obstacles.

The total exportation for 1880 amounts to 41,991,373 rubles, or 23,660,715 rubles less than in 1879.

In consequence of the lack of cereals for transportation the railway companies' receipts have greatly diminished as compared with the preceding year; the South Western Railroad alone had a falling off of receipts of 2,500,000 rubles. River navigation and the coasting trade have likewise suffered by the lack of merchandise for freight.

This condition of affairs has not failed to react upon trade; the breweries, the steam mills, the factories for making agricultural implements, and all the minor industries, almost without exception, have done nothing but complain concerning the financial result of their operations in 1880.

* * * * * * *

IMPORTATION OF FOREIGN WOOL AT ODESSA.

I should also here mention a fact without precedent in the annals of our port; it is the direct importation by two sailing vessels from Port Elizabeth of full cargoes of fine wools from the Cape for a Moscow house. The sheep raisers and owners of sheep farms were naturally very much exercised over this importation of foreign wool, which, were it to take greater proportions, would threaten a dangerous rivalry to the wools of New Russia, formerly so much appreciated by Russian manufacturers.

SUPERIORITY OF AMERICAN MACHINERY, MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS, LOCKS, &c.

I have another fact to relate in regard to the importation which is not without interest, namely, the ever increasing competion which the Americans make with the English in regard to agricultural and other implements. The American machines are beginning to be preferred to the English on account of their greater perfection; the same is true of their musical instruments, locksmith work, and various other articles.

[The report is published as a supplement to the Feuille Fédérale Suisse, of March 12, 1881.]

STANDARD OF GOLD AND SILVER MANUFACTURES IN SWITZERLAND.

REPORT BY MR. FISH, CHARGÉ D'AFFAIRES AT BERNE.

I have the honor to inclose herewith two French and two German copies of the Swiss law of control and guarantee of standard in gold and silver manufactured articles of December 23, 1880.

This law, which is to go into effect January 1, 1882, will serve to remedy one of the greatest evils to which the Swiss watch industry has hitherto been subject, by furnishing a guarantee of the quality of the goods to the purchaser and to the workmen, who in many cases receive a large portion of their earnings from the parings.

The law is most liberal in its provisions, and is intended solely as a

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protection against abuse, and is in no sense an enactment for increasing the revenue.

NICHOLAS FISH,
Chargé d'Affaires.

LEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES,
Berne, Switzerland, February 17, 1881.

Swiss law concerning the control and guarantee of standard in gold and silver artic'es, (*Dated December* 23, 1880.)

[Translation.]

The Federal Assembly of the Swiss Confederation, in applying articles 31, letter C. and 64 of the federal constitution, in consideration of the message of the Federal Council of November 28, 1879, decrees:

ARTICLE 1. The manufacturing and sale of gold and silver articles of all standards are subject to the following provisions:

A. For watch-cases bearing, in whatever language or cipher, in full or in abbreviation, one of the following indications, or one corresponding thereto, namely: For gold, 18 karats or 750 thousandths and upwards; 14 karats or 583 thousandths; for silver, 875 thousandths and upwards, 800 thousandths; the mint mark is obligatory; they must be stamped with the federal stamp of control, according to the provisions of the federal regulation for the execution of this law, unless they bear the official mint mark of another country, recognized as equivalent thereto.

B. For other articles of gold and silver (goldsmiths' work and jewelry) the mint mark is optional. Such of these latter articles as are of a superior standard, namely, gold, 18 karats or 750 thousandths and upwards; silver, 875 thousandths and upwards, may be officially stamped, even when they do not bear an indication of their standard.

ART. 2. Watch-cases and other gold and silver articles not officially controlled shall not bear any other indication of their composition or alloy than that of their actual standard. If they bear the latter indication they must bear also the mark or sign of their maker, in conformity with the provisions of the regulation of execution.

A tolerance of 3 thousandths is allowed in the assay for gold, and of 5 thousandths for silver, irrespective of the standard.

No portion of the articles of gold or silver can be of a lower standard than that which is stamped or indicated. The regulations for the execution of this law will set forth the detailed provisions, and will fix the requisite exceptions.

It is forbidden to engrave on works of another metal, or on plated articles, indications tending to deceive the purchaser.

ART. 3. The creation of bureaus of control belongs to the cantons, subject to the following provisions concerning their organization:

The sworn assayers must have a federal diploma. They are subject, as regards the technical portion of their work, to the direction and supervision of the federal authority.

The bureaus shall be furnished with a sufficient number of assayers and other employés, besides the apparatus and material necessary for the assays, according to the federal provisions. They are obliged to assay and stamp, in the order of their reception, the articles which are sent to them, from whatever part of Switzerland they may come, and to return them without charge for packing. The Federal regulation may prescribe the measures to be taken to prevent the bureaus from being overcrowded with ar icles.

The taxes to be collected for the assays and the stamping are to be fixed by the federal regulation. They shall not be of a fiscal character.

The receipts shall belong to the cantons or communes who have to provide for the maintenance and support of the bureaus.

The bureaus of control are responsible for their assays and stamping; they are responsible for the articles which are confided to them, in conjunction with the communes and cantons to which they are subordinate.

ART. 4. There shall be established at the Swiss polytechnic school a federal bureau of control, specially destined for training assayers possessing the requisite knowledge, and to revise, in case of contention, the assays of the other bureaus. The receipts and expenses of this bureau shall be included in the budget of the federal department of commerce.

ART. 5. The federal department of commerce and agriculture shall exercise the su-

pervision reserved by article 3 to the federal authority. It shall furnish to the bureaus of control the federal mint-stamps upon payment of the costs.

ART. 6. Whoever shall have made, sold, or exposed for sale watch-cases bearing the indication of the legal standards without the official mint-mark, shall pay five times the amount of the tax for the official stamping if the official assay shows that the indication is not fraudulent. In that case the official mint-mark shall be stamped without further charge.

Whoever shall have made, sold, or exposed for sale watch-cases of other than the legal standards or other works of gold or of silver not officially controlled, with the indications of their standard, but without the mark or sign of their maker, shall pay a fine representing four times the amount of the tax for stamping of the legal standard mint-mark, if the official assay shows that the intent was not fraudulent.

In the two cases above mentioned the total of the fine cannot, however, exceed 500 francs.

Those who, with fraudulent intent, shall have made, sold, or exposed for sale articles, in contravention of the present law, shall be punished by a fine of from 30 francs to 2,000 francs or by an imprisonment of from three days to one year, or by both penalties combined, within the limits set forth.

The following shall be deemed fraudulent:

a. In what relates to manufactured articles of gold or silver whatsoever.

1st. Every indication as to their composition or alloy, except that of their actual standard, whether made upon the articles themselves, or at the time of their sale or of exposing them for sale.

2d. The presence in a manufactured article of portions thereof of an inferior standard to the standard stamped thereon or indicated, subject to the reservations of the provisions and exceptions foreseen by the regulation (article 2, paragraph 3 of the law).

b. In what relates to manufactured articles of other metals or to plated articles, every indication tending to deceive the purchaser whether made upon the articles themselves or at the time of their sale or of exposing them for sale.

ART. 7. Whoever shall have counterfeited, in whole or in part, the official marks, or shall have knowingly applied counterfeit marks, or who shall have changed or caused to be changed, with a fraudulent intent, the official marks, shall be condemned to an imprisonment of from one month to one year and to a fine of from 100 to 1,000 francs.

Every person knowingly making an illicit use of the official mint-marks shall be condemned to an imprisonment of from 14 days to one year and to a fine of from 50 to 1,000 francs. If it is an employé of the control he shall in addition thereto be dismissed and deprived of the federal diploma.

Every person belonging to the administration of control or an employé thereof who shall copy, or permit to be copied, the works deposited with the control, shall be punished by a fine of from 20 to 200 francs. If there has been deception or gross negligence he shall, in addition thereto, be dismissed and deprived of the federal diploma, if he holds one.

ART. 8. The federal council may, at any time, forbid the use of marks or signs which might give rise to confusion with the official mint-marks.

ART. 9. In case of a repetition of the offense these penalties may be increased to the double of those pronounced in regard to the preceding offense.

The amount of the fines and confiscations shall be deposited in the fund designated by the canton.

In imposing a fine the judge shall assign an imprisonment in proportion to the fine in case the latter shall not be paid.

The civil indemnity for the cases provided for in articles 6 and 7 remains.

ART. 10. Prosecutions will be begun at the request of the local cantonal or federal authority of supervision or that of the party injured.

The courts shall prescribe, in conformity with the laws of procedure, the necessary investigations and measures of protection. They may decree the confiscation of the articles seized to the amount of the damages to be paid to the injured party and of the fines due. They may also decree the insertion in the public press, at the cost of the party convicted, of the judgment pronounced.

In all cases the counterfeit mint-marks shall be confiscated and destroyed, and the articles bearing fraudulent inscriptions shall be cut up.

ARTICLE 11. This present law shall go into effect January 1, 1882. It supersedes, from that date, the provisions of the same nature of the cantonal laws and ordinances.

In the four months which precede that date, all works which, without bearing inscriptions of a nature to deceive, do not fulfil the requirements of the present law, and those of the regulations for its execution may be stamped with a mint-mark *ad hoc* or a lead stamp, by the bureaus of control.

From the time the present goes into effect every article not marked with leaded or stamped with such mint-mark *ad hoc* shall be dealt with in accordance with the provisions of articles 1 and 2, and 6 to 10; but, however, the articles which, at the time of the promulgation of the law may be abroad, shall be admitted to receive the mint-

mark *ad hoc* or the lead stamp, upon proof that the holder of such merchandise was prevented from complying with the law at the proper time. This exceptional faculty shall terminate after a period of five years from the going into effect of the law.

ARTICLE 12. The federal council is charged with the publication of the present law in accordance with the provisions of the federal law of June 17, 1874, concerning the popular vote upon the federal laws and decrees.

Thus decreed by the National Council, Berne, the 23d December, 1880.

The president:

DR. C. BURCKHARDT.

The secretary:

SCLAIESS.

Thus decreed by the Council of States, Berne, the 23d December, 1880.

The president:

SAHLI.

The secretary:

GISI.

The federal council decrees that the foregoing shall be published in the Feuille Fédérale.

BERNE, *January* 4, 1881.

In the name of the Swiss federal council.

The vice-president:

DROZ.

The chancellor of the confederation:

SCHIESS.

NOTE.—Date of publication, January 8, 1881; period of opposition, April 8, 1881.

THE AMERICAN PORK QUESTION IN EUROPE.

Appendix to No. 7.

[Appendix to No. 7.]

THE AMERICAN PORK QUESTION IN EUROPE.

[The following reports, together with those recently published by the Department, give a fair exposition of this important question up to date.]

PROPOSED PROHIBITION OF AMERICAN SWINE MEAT INTO AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

REPORT BY MINISTER KASSON, OF VIENNA.

Recurring to the subject of my despatches Nos. 428 and 430, I have now to add that on the 8th instant I received very opportunely your telegram.

I made it the occasion of a further communication to the minister for foreign affairs, as follows:

UNITED STATES LEGATION,
Vienna, March 8, 1881.

DEAR BARON HAYMERLE: Referring to my conversation with you of the 28th ultimo, and my note of the 1st instant, inclosing "memorandum," I beg to call your attention to a telegram received to-day from the Secretary of State, at Washington, which denies the reports, put in circulation by interested parties, respecting the prevalence of disease among American swine.

In this connection, I beg that the attention of the proper authority in Austria and in Hungary may be called to the fact, as reported to this legation, that examinations have shown more condemnations of German and Servian swine meat, on account of the presence of trichinæ, than of American. A quantity of Westphalian hams are reported to have been recently confiscated in this city on that account. It is believed that when the reports made are duly considered by the respective governments, it will appear to them necessary to make one rule equally applicable to the importations from all countries.

JOHN A. KASSON.

On the evening of the same day, meeting me in society, he said that he had received this note and had already ordered its transmission to the Austrian and Hungarian Governments. Your telegram was opportune, especially, because there had at the time appeared in the journals a statement that the municipality of Pesth had just addressed to the government there a petition for the prohibition of the importation of lard, of pork, and of fat coming from America. By my advice, the consul at Pesth was instructed to remonstrate with the local authorities for reasons given, and his action thereon he afterwards reported to the consul-general.

I have now exhausted all the preventive means which occur to me as being in my power to reverse or modify the intended action of the two governments. It has also been the subject of conversation between two of the ambassadors and myself, in which I sought to dissipate the groundless alarm, and indicated what is generally believed to be at the bottom of the difficulty, namely, the wish to obstruct and even abolish American competition in the home markets of Europe.

There remains, however, the question whether the United States Government has done all in its power to obviate every just cause of com-

plaint. It appears to me the answer must be in the negative: 1st. So far as I can ascertain, the causes, and the effect upon the animal fiber, of hog cholera have not been officially investigated and stated. 2d. No system of official inspection in respect to trichinæ has been established, either at slaughter-houses, at depots, or at ports of exportation. 3d. No official investigation and determination has been made whether salting, smoking, "trying" the fat, or other curative process, has the effect of destroying the dangerous animalcule. I venture to suggest that until some official action in these directions has been duly taken, we are not without fault for the alarm existing on the subject in Europe.

In connection with these suggestions, I take the liberty to say further: We are so far removed from the countries of interior Europe, that their governments are not so careful in treating economic questions involving our interests alone as they are in dealing with like questions affecting their immediate neighbors. Their sense of international justice is also largely influenced by the wide-spread fears among their people of the effect of the recent development of the products and of the industry of the United States, and of the resulting competition in European markets.

These fears particularly apply to the agriculture of America. The taxation of real estate here is very burdensome; in America it is light. Rents must here in large regions be paid to landlords; in America the farmer is usually free from rent charges. Here lands have been highly paid for; there they were bought comparatively cheap. These considerations are pressed upon the governments. It is more than possible that they will lead to palpable injustice and inequality towards the United States in the near future. Hence the question, whether Congress ought not to arm the Executive with the power to impose temporarily a percentage of discriminating duties on the products of the soil and of the industry of those nations which apply discriminating duties or regulations against the products of the soil or industry of the United States.

Some two years ago I had the honor to advise you that the condition of public sentiment in this country, and on this continent generally, gave serious cause for alarm to American interests. I beg now, in view of the partial realization of those fears, to renew that declaration, and to direct attention to remedial and precautionary measures.

JOHN A. KASSON.

LEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES,
Vienna, March 12, 1881.

PROHIBITION OF THE IMPORTATION OF AMERICAN SWINE PRODUCTS INTO AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL WEAVER, OF VIENNA.

The Reichsgesetzblatt of Vienna publishes to-day the following decree, signed by the ministers of the interior, of commerce, and of finance for Austria, dated March 10, 1881, prohibiting the importation of swine products from the United States to this empire, as follows:

In agreement with the Royal Hungarian Government, the importation of swine, of pork of all kinds, of lard and of sausages of every description, from the United States into the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy is prohibited.

This prohibition goes into force from the date of its publication.

I am also informed by Consul Sterne that a similar decree was published at Pesth on the 11th instant, by the ministers of commerce and of the interior for the Hungarian Monarchy, so that the prohibition for the entire Austro-Hungarian Empire is now perfected.

There is no doubt in my mind but that the actuating cause of this prohibition may be attributed to the bitter opposition of pork producers in this country, as they have suffered greatly from American competition, but probably the immediate cause was the recent similar prohibition on the part of the French Government.

Aware of the feelings of the producing classes in this empire, I was fully prepared for a vigorous attack upon American swine products as soon as France had led the way. Consequently, on the 2d instant, an article appeared in the morning journals here, to the effect that the burgomaster of Buda-Pesth had declared before a commercial society that it had been satisfactorily proven that American meats were deleterious to the public health by reason of the trichinæ they contained, and that such representations would be laid before the government as would lead to a prohibition of their importation.

The article was sent to Consul Sterne at once, with instructions to call upon the burgomaster, and ascertain the grounds upon which he made such statements, and if it were found that on the plea of sanitary measures any unjust discriminations were likely to be made against American products, he should protest in strong terms against such a procedure, and lay before the proper authorities such a statement of our appreciation of the situation as might prevent hasty action injurious to our trade. To this end it was claimed that the American hog products were equally as free from trichinæ as the European products, and that this could be proven by reliable microscopical examination, and that the cases of trichinosis in Europe were shown to have resulted from eating of native pork, and that consequently it was unjust to condemn an article of any one nation and not subject the same article, similarly conditioned, to like prohibition or restriction.

On the 6th instant Mr. Sterne replied in effect, that he had communicated with the burgomaster, who promised to give his statements due consideration; that action had been taken in consequence of an inquiry made by the ministry as to what effect the examining station recently established at Trieste had produced; that he had no official statistics concerning the introduction of American pork, but that he had heard of diseased stock being discovered and condemned at Steinbruck, but in these cases the hogs had come from Servia and the lower Danube.

It was supposed, however, that Sanitätsrath Gross would furnish the proofs sustaining any proposition made to the ministry, who in turn would most likely appoint a commission of investigation, on whose report action would be taken.

On the receipt of this communication I placed the same before Mr. Kasson, who informed me that he had already sent to the foreign office the strongest possible representations on the subject, and was likewise in direct telegraphic communication with the Department on the subject, so that possibly nothing further could be done.

On the 13th instant, however, I received a letter from Mr. Sterne, inclosing the ministerial decree, which he justly characterized as a "foregone conclusion" pronounced by a government that had made up its mind to act at once upon *ex parte* evidence. In order to show the animus pervading the minds of those in positions of influence, in respect to American swine products, I inclose herewith a copy of a newspaper article emanating from Dr. Ludwig von Gross, one of the medical ad-

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visers of the city of Buda-Pesth, from which it would appear that a bitter crusade against our swine products may be expected all over the continent of Europe. The question must therefore occur to the minds of legislators, whether this unjust discrimination against our products should not be met by a similar prohibition of the importation into the United States of the special products of the offending nations, or by applying to their imports a special discriminating duty. *Lex talionis* might have at present a more beneficial influence on European nations than commercial reciprocity.

But while it is believed that France and Austria have acted recently in the matter under consideration with great precipitation and injustice, yet it cannot be doubted that the result has been partly owing to causes for which our own merchants are responsible, viz, in that the shipment of large quantities of insufficiently cured or spoiled meat prejudice foreign markets against our products; and the telegraphed or published statements of great mortality among the swine in America, probably originated or aggravated by speculators in the trade in order to subserve selfish ends, give to those who are seeking it the occasion for making those frightful representations concerning American meats that consumers are deterred from using them and officials induced to combine with the native producers in order to prohibit their importation. It would appear, therefore, that the question is so hopelessly involved and obscured by personal interests that the public welfare is lost sight of.

JAMES RILEY WEAVER,
Consul-General.

CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Vienna, March 16, 1881.

PROHIBITION OF THE IMPORTATION OF AMERICAN PORK INTO AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

REPORT BY MINISTER KASSON.

The interests at work to obstruct the competition of American swine-meat, and swine product, in the markets of this monarchy have finally succeeded in their purpose. On the 16th instant appeared here in the official journal—the Wiener Zeitung—an ordinance, of which I inclose a translation. A copy of the original publication is inclosed herewith. I had previously private information that the two governments had resolved to effect their purpose in some form, notwithstanding the official representations I had made of the absence of just sanitary grounds on which to base such an ordinance. If my remonstrances had any effect, it was only to induce them to abstain from alleging disease in the articles prohibited. The order is a simple, naked prohibition, without alleged sanitary causes, or other reasons. It might equally apply to American flour. But this form leaves it a patent and bare violation of the fifth article of our treaty of commerce of 1829. This appeared to me to more than justify a formal protest on my part against it, even had this not been required by the instructions of the telegram addressed to me by Mr. Evarts, under date of the 25th of February. A copy of my protesting communication to Baron Haymerle is inclosed herewith, and I hope it may be approved by my government, as within my instructions, and as proper in form. I could not permit to pass without protest an order so plainly ignoring the obligation of a treaty.

If they should seek to justify the order by hereafter alleging disease in the American swine product, still there remain the need of proof, and, even if proved, the inequality of national treatment against which the treaty stipulates. Their own official records show the presence of the disease in the like products of neighboring countries which are not included in the prohibition. The Secretary will observe that in my two previous notes to the foreign office, I carefully kept in view the two claims of my government—actual disease to be shown, and one rule to be applied to all nations, without discrimination against the United States.

The injustice and inequality of the order are evident. Its folly will be apparent from the fact that it will lead to the illicit introduction of American swine-meat under the disguises of other nations.

JOHN A. KASSON,
Minister.

LEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES,
Vienna, March 18, 1881.

MINISTER KASSON'S PROTEST.

The undersigned, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of the United States of America, begs to call the particular attention of his Excellency Baron Haymerle, Imperial Royal Minister for Foreign Affairs, to the following observations:

In the Wiener Zeitung of the 16th instant appears the following official publication:

An order issued by the Ministry of the Interior and by the Ministry of Commerce and Finance under date of March 10, 1881, in relation to the prohibition of the importation of swine, pork, bacon, and sausages from the United States of America.

The importation of swine, and of pork, bacon, and sausage of all kinds, from the United States of North America into the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy is hereby forbidden.

This prohibition shall take effect on the day of its promulgation.

Taaffe Dunaajaski,

PINO.

From this it appears that, alike in Hungary and in Austria, without previous notice to or understanding with the Government of the United States, an unconditional prohibition has been imposed on the importation of an important article of commerce, the produce of the United States. This prohibition seems to be exceptionally applied to the produce of the United States, and not to extend to other nations.

The treaty of commerce and navigation concluded between the two nations on the 27th of August, 1829, adopted a system of "perfect reciprocity, based upon principles of equity equally beneficial to both countries." Article V of that treaty, in conformity with that system, provided for mutual and exact equality of treatment, so that no other or higher duties should be imposed on the produce or manufactures of either than those imposed upon the like article the produce or manufacture of any other country. It is further, in the same article, expressly agreed as follows:

"*Nor shall any prohibition be imposed on the importation or exportation of any article the produce or manufacture of the United States* or of the dominions of Austria, to or from the ports of the United States, or to or from the ports of the dominions of Austria, *which shall not equally extend to all other nations.*"

The Government of the United States is unable to reconcile the official order above quoted with the provisions of the treaty, and the obligations imposed alike on both governments.

The undersigned must therefore protest, in the name of his government, against the said order and its enforcement, and reserves all rights of reclamation, both for his government and for its citizens, on account of the injury and damage which may result therefrom.

The undersigned begs his Excellency Baron Haymerle to accept herewith the very cordial assurances of his distinguished consideration.

JOHN A. KASSON.

UNITED STATES LEGATION,
Vienna, March 18, 1881.

PROHIBITION OF AMERICAN PORK IN AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

REPORT BY CONSUL STERNE, OF BUDA-PESTH.

On March 10 of this year the Hungarian Government, in connection with the Austrian, issued a decree "prohibiting the importation of any American products of swine into any of its territories."

No doubt this fact has ere this been officially brought to your notice by our representative at Vienna, and I only venture to repeat it because I believe my position here at the commercial center of the State enables me to lay a few additional items on the subject before you; items the knowing of which may be of value to our government in connection with how it may consequently shape its course in reciprocity.

I suppose every nation has the right to adopt measures which are intended to protect the sanitary condition of its people, without regard as to the effect of such measures upon the commercial interests of another nation. It is my opinion, though, that in this instance the above is only the nominal motive, and that there were other causes at work to bring about the action; I have therefore taken pains to investigate into the real nature of these motives, and consider it my duty to submit the results for your consideration, of course speaking only of facts relating to Hungary.

In former years this state was not only the "granary of Europe," but it also supplied the Continent and England with a great part of their needs in the products of swine; the natural resources of the country are well adapted for the production of such and in larger quantities than home consumption requires, and this surplus, with what is brought in from Servia, Roumania, and the Lower Danube (for the products of which countries this is the natural gateway on their way to the west of Europe), has furnished Hungary the means for quite an extensive and profitable export trade.

I have stated in a former report how the cheaper American grain and flour has affected a similar industry in this country, and now my observations tell me that also its trade in swine and their products has, if possible, suffered even to a greater degree, for instead of, as formerly, supplying the Continent and England with its surplus, this state is now troubled to hold its own in territories which are naturally tributary to it.

I have been aiming to supply you with exact figures to prove what I say, but it is impossible to gather reliable statistics on the subject, and I shall therefore report only in a general way what I have deduced from those reports, &c., which have been accessible to me. From all these I have discovered that the Hungarian trade in this branch has gradually receded in the same proportion as that of America has expanded; that it has not only decreased in quantity, but also become more and more unprofitable.

I will here quote by translation part of a report on the subject by the Handels and Gewerbe Kammer (chamber of trade and commerce) of Buda-Pesth, for 1879, which speaks more to the point than any figures I could give. It says:

Also, in 1879 our export trade did not go beyond the narrow limits (borders) which the powerful American competition has drawn (set) for it, and to-day (at present) the export suffers frequent interruptions, also towards the *Austrian* provinces, because we cannot compete with the extraordinarily low American prices even in the closest vicinity.

I have italicised the word *also* because it refers to a similar condition in former years, and *Austrian*, as it shows that it is specially a Hungarian interest which suffers.

As a further instance I will say that in conversation with a leading merchant here he admitted to me that while he was formerly able to export largely and profitably in this branch, the trade has now become reduced to nothing but a small retail business, comparatively.

Hungary proper never imported much, if any, American pork, for it easily produces all it needs for home use, therefore the danger from the claimed trichinæ in American pork has never been serious; but, on the other hand, it admits large quantities of swine from the "Lower Danube," countries which admittedly contain trichinæ, and are frequently otherwise diseased. Of course, there are quarantine stations established in that direction, but these cannot be considered as complete safeguards against the final introduction of diseased stock; but the handling of these furnishes quite a profitable trade to the country, while the American article has a murderous effect on the same trade on account of its "terrible" low prices. Nor have I been able to discover cases of trichinosis wherein the cause could be traced to the use of American pork, and, in truth, any observer of the wan faces of the many poor people can see that the excessive *non*-use of American pork kills more people than the use of it.

Therefore it is my opinion that the action of Hungary was taken more for the purpose of its moral effect upon the rest of Europe than anything else, for by the gradual exclusion of American pork from Europe this state will be more benefited than any other, as it will thereby recover a formerly extensive and profitable trade.

HENRY STERNE,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Buda-Pesth, March 24, 1881.

THE PORK QUESTION IN AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL WEAVER, OF VIENNA.

In view of the recent action of the Government of Austria-Hungary in prohibiting the importation of American swine and swine products into this Empire, as reported in my dispatch No. 119, I beg to submit herewith certain statistical data collected from the latest official reports at my command, which may be of some utility in the discussion and comprehension of the question.

The importation of swine into Austria-Hungary for 1879 amounted to 438,734 head, of which 259,175 came from Servia, 126,815 from Roumania, 21,311 from Bosnia, and 18,781 from Russia; while the exportation amounted to 262,006, of which 250,520 went into Germany, whereas during the first eleven months of 1880 the number imported fell off to 187,318 in place of 420,410 for same period of 1879, and the number exported fell from 241,302 to 210,876 during the same periods of 1879 and 1881. However, the decrease in the importation of swine is still more striking when compared with 1876 and 1877, for which years there were imported, respectively, 759,048 and 524,562 head, and exported 457,206 and 403,015 head. Since January 1, 1879, the entry duty on hogs has been 2 florins per head.

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It will thus be seen that the decrease in the importation during the last five years has been enormous, amounting in 1880 to only about one-quarter of what it was in 1876, while the exportation fell off to about one half, so that the exports now slightly surpass the imports. It is no secret that the regulation of this traffic between this country and Servia, and likewise with Germany, has been hitherto and yet remains one of the most difficult points to be settled previous to concluding the commercial treaties at present under consideration.

In order of importance, the category comprising rendered hogs' lard (schweinefett) and unrendered fat (speck) form the largest article of swine imports into this country, but as in all official reports goose-grease is included in this category, the data can only be taken as approximations for our present purposes; but they may be considered as sufficiently accurate, as the goose-grease forms but a very small quantity relatively.

Therefore the importation of these three articles, schweinefett, goose-grease, and speck, for 1879, amounted to 934 tons of 1,000 kilograms, valued at 467,000 florins. Of the total, 601 tons entered by Trieste, and 249 tons by the German frontier, which would indicate that a large proportion of the same was doubtless American lard. But as the decree prohibiting the importation of American hogs or pork of all kinds specifies speck and omits schweinefett from the list, it may be concluded that the purified or rendered lard proper of the American markets is *not* prohibited, but only the unrendered lard or fat, which is the speck.

The exportation of the foregoing category for 1879 amounted to 130 tons, of which 53 tons went to Bosnia and 49 to Germany. The imports and exports for the first eleven months of 1880 were, respectively, 5,635 and 89 tons, against 999 tons imports and 113 tons exports during same period of 1879, manifesting an enormous increase of the imports and a slight decrease in the exports.

For the year 1876 and 1877, the goose-grease included in the above category was omitted, and the importation of schweinefett and speck for those years are given at, respectively, 1,056 tons and 1,879 tons, and the exports at 285 tons for 1876 and 113 for 1877. The increase of imports from 1,056 tons in 1876 to 5,635 tons in the first eleven months of 1880, is certainly very extraordinary and worthy of note, particularly as the exports fell from 285 tons in 1876 to 130 tons in the first eleven months of 1880. As about two-thirds importations of those articles came in by Trieste, and as nearly 900 tons of lard, meat, and butter arrived there direct from the United States in 1879, it may be concluded that quite the major part of all the imports of lard and speck to this Empire are of American origin; but as the decree does not affect the lard, as above explained, the injury to our commerce may not prove as serious in this direction as was feared. The entry duty on the foregoing category is eight florins per 100 kilograms.

Of meats proper there are two categories, viz, fresh meat and meats salted, dried, smoked, or pickled; consequently we may omit the former and accept the latter as giving approximately the importation and exportation of pork into and from this Empire.

For 1879 the importation of prepared meats, as explained above, amounted to 103 tons, of which 68 tons came through or from Germany and 18 tons entered at the port of Trieste, while the exports amounted to 347 tons, of which 128 crossed the German frontier, 160 tons went out via Trieste, 39 tons via Fiume, and 16 tons crossed the Italy frontier. For the first eleven months the imports were 123 tons and the exports 299 tons, while for 1876 and 1877 the imports were, respectively, 77 and 87

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tons, and the exports 266 and 339 tons, respectively, manifesting during the last five years an increase of imports from 77 tons in 1876 to 123 tons in the first eleven months of 1880, while the exports show but little change, viz, 266 tons in 1876, and 299 tons in first eleven months of 1880. The entry duty on prepared meats is three florins per 100 kilograms, the same as that on fresh meats, of which in 1879 were imported 257 tons and exported 1,387 tons.

In sausages, omitting that by virtue of treaty stipulations, the movement is very insignificant, probably owing to the high tariff of twenty florins per 100 kilograms. The total amount imported in 1819, including pork, blood, and liver sausages, and omitting the 75 tons entered by virtue of the special commercial conventions with Italy and Germany, from whence came 23 and 49 tons, respectively, at an entry duty of 16 florins per 100 kilograms, was only *four tons*, three tons of which entered by the German and one by the Italian frontier. The total exports of all kinds of sausages for 1879 was 191 tons across the frontiers and by the ports, as follows: German, 43 tons; Servian, 36 tons; Italian, 7 tons; Roumanian, 5 tons; Trieste, 76 tons; and Fiume, 12 tons.

Comparing the imports for the first eleven months of 1880 with those of like periods of 1879, viz, 76 and 64 tons, a considerable increase is observed, while on the contrary the exports for the same periods, viz, 129 and 183 tons, respectively, manifests a material falling off.

The value of the imports and duty paid thereon during the year 1879 were given as follows:

Description.	Value.	Duty.
	Florins.	*Florins.*
Hogs	11, 407, 084	877, 404
Lard and fat	467, 000	74, 720
Prepared meat	98, 325	3, 105
Sausages	94, 560	12, 768
Total	12, 066, 969	968, 057

In order to present the matter in the most succinct and comprehensive manner possible, I inclose herewith a tabulated statement of the imports and exports of swine and swine products to and from the Empire of Austria-Hungary during the period of time indicated.

From the accompanying table it will be seen, first, that both the importation and exportation of hogs during the past five years manifest constant and enormous decrease; secondly, that the importation of swine products indicate material development, and the increase of lard and speck during 1880 is over sixfold; and, thirdly, that on the contrary the exportation of these products manifest generally a considerable decrease, from which it may be justly concluded that the swine industry of the Austro-Hungarian Empire is not in a flourishing or satisfactory condition, which may in part account for the zeal manifested by certain parties in inducing the government to prohibit the importation of American hog products, which have doubtless been the main cause of the present languishing condition of the trade.

It should furthermore be remarked that on account of the relatively small quantities of these American products that have been heretofore imported into this country, and are now prohibited, probably not over 25 or 30 tons of bacon and hams, the injury to our trade is reduced to a minimum; but doubtless the main object of discriminating against American pork was intended to influence other nations, whose large trade

in these American meats so affected prices and supplies generally that there is at present no active demand as formerly for Austrian meats; hence a depression that threatens to destroy her domestic swine products, which must be counteracted in some way.

JAMES RILEY WEAVER,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Vienna, March 26, 1881.

THE AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN PROHIBITION.

REPORT BY MR. DELAPLAINE, SECRETARY OF LEGATION AT VIENNA.

Referring to dispatch No. 438, I herewith inclose a copy of the reply (received to-day) of the imperial royal minister for foreign affairs to Mr. Kasson's note of March 18, 1881, the latter containing a formal protest against the official order of prohibition of the importation of swine-meat and swine products from the United States into Austria-Hungary.

I have, &c.,

J. F. DELAPLAINE.

UNITED STATES LEGATION,
Vienna, April 1, 1880.

[Inclosure 2 in No. 45.—Translation.]

VIENNA, *March* 29, 1881.

The undersigned has had the honor to receive the esteemed note of the 18th instant, wherein the envoy, Mr. John A. Kasson, saw fit to protest in the name of his government against the ordinance issued by the governments of both portions of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy under date of the 10th instant, in respect to the prohibition of the import of hogs, swine-meat, lard, and sausages from the United States of America.

So far as this protest is based on Article V of the treaty of commerce and navigation of August 27, 1829, the undersigned begs respectfully to remark, that consideration for the preservation of the public health is the exclusive cause of said prohibition.

An appeal to Article V of the treaty referred to does not appear here to be pertinent because the renunciation therein contained upon the issue of prohibitions of import, which are not of general nature cannot prejudice a prohibition which is issued from sanitary considerations.

The whole practice under the treaty confirms this comprehension, and is precisely the same which has been already once used towards the United States of America, when Austria-Hungary was obliged, for the purpose of preventing the introduction of the Colorado-beetle, to prohibit the import of potatoes from America. That government then raised no objection.

In fact it is impossible that the intent of the enactments of Article V can go so far as to interdict the parties which have concluded the treaty from adopting such protective measures as circumstances may offer for preserving their sanitary interests. Let it be assumed, for example, that a pestilence should break out in one or the other of the two countries, then no cause of complaint for violation of treaty would exist against the country free from pestilence in case a prohibition should be decreed upon such of the articles of export of the other as are of immediate danger to health.

Similarly in the present case it affects products of the United States of America, the consumption of which, according to the judgment expressed by professional authorities, must be regarded as unquestionably dangerous to health.

Thus the sanitary congress in particular, which was held at Amsterdam in the year 1879, declared unanimously that the import to Europe of American swine-meat and other products of swine should be prohibited. In fact, trichinæ were found on repeated occasions in the examination of hams and shoulder-pieces coming from North America, in different places of the monarchy, as well as since the year 1879 in Trieste.

The precautionary measures which were taken at that time against the introduction of trichinæ, whereby a strict scrutiny and examination of the imported kinds of swine-meat from North America was ordered, could not calm the apprehensions of the population of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy.

The issue of a prohibition of the import of swine and the products of the same from the United States of America was therefore constantly and pressingly demanded. Moreover, similar prohibition of import exists in Italy, Germany, and France.

As regards the omission of a previous announcement to the Government of the United States of America of the introduction of the prohibition in question, the undersigned begs respectfully to remark, that ordinances of a sanitary nature and pertaining to the police department, in Austro-Hungary, always go into operation on the day of their publication; therefore a previous notification of the measure adopted to the country thereby affected, or to its government, cannot take place.

The undersigned avails himself of this occasion to renew to the chargé d'affaires the expression of his very distinguished consideration.

For the minister of foreign affairs.

KALLAY.

Mr. JOHN F. DELAPLAINE,
Chargé d'affaires of the United States of America.

PROHIBITING THE IMPORTATION OF AMERICAN PORK INTO FRANCE.

REPORT BY ROBERT M. MOORE, VICE-CONSUL-GENERAL AT PARIS.

I have the honor to forward you copies of the circular addressed by the minister of agriculture and of commerce to the prefets under date of February 14, 1881, and the report of the same minister to the President of the Republic, and the decrees based thereon, together with the translations of the same.

This report and the decrees forbid the further importation of American pork, owing to the dangers to the public health from the presence of trichinæ.

ROBERT M. HOOPER.
Vice-Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Paris, February 21, 1881.

[Translation of inclosure No. 1.]

The minister of agriculture and of commerce has addressed the following circular to all the prefets:

PARIS, *February* 14, 1881.

MONSIEUR LE PREFET: I have been informed that trichina has been found in certain salt pork which has been imported from abroad.

The administration has for some time been occupied with this question, and in regard to certain cases of injurious importations which have been called to its attention it has indicated the culinary precautions which are necessary in order to avoid the danger which is run in the consumption of salt pork infested with trichinæ.

With a view to protecting the public health in a more efficient manner, without prohibiting, absolutely, the importation of an important element of food, to which the people have now become accustomed, the government is studying the organization of a special inspection, which will be established on both our sea and land frontiers, so that only such meats as are known to be healthy will be allowed to enter France.

But outside of these administrative precautions it is necessary that the consumers take measures to protect themselves against the dangers of trichinosis; it is decided therefore to remind them that the best precaution against this danger is a thorough cooking of the pork. It is acknowledged that meat infested with trichinæ presents no danger after it has been submitted to a temperature of 100° centigrade.*

* Equals 212° Fahrenheit.

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I pray you to call these facts to the attention of your constituents by all the means of publicity at your disposal, and especially by posters.

I shall be obliged if you will keep me informed, without delay, of the measures which you have taken in order to insure the execution of the foregoing instructions, the importance of which will not escape you.

Accept, Monsieur le Prefet, the assurance of my highest consideration.

P. TIRARD,
Minister of Agriculture and Commerce.

[Translation of inclosure No. 2.]

REPORT TO THE PRESIDENT OF THE FRENCH REPUBLIC.

MONSIEUR LE PRESIDENT: My attention has recently been called to the introduction into France of a considerable quantity of salt pork imported from America. These meats are infested with trichinæ, and may place the public health in great danger.

The committee on public hygiene of France, whom I have consulted upon the question, has been unanimous in the decision that trichina, introduced alive into the digestive organs of man, gives him the malady called trichinosis, the effect of which is, undoubtedly, almost always death. After so absolute an affirmation the government ought to take, without delay, the proper measures to prevent the dangers to which the people would be exposed from the use of such meat as has already been introduced and delivered to the consumers.

I have therefore addressed to all the prefets a circular prescribing the culinary precautions which must be taken to destroy the injurious effects of trichinæ with which the pork coming from America is infested. The greatest publicity should have been given by the prefets to the circular, which has, on the other hand, been inserted in the Journal Officiel of the Republic.

But the measures indicated, infallible if they are strictly observed, do not seem to sufficiently guarantee the consumers of these meats (who belong in a majority of cases to the poorer classes of the population) from the dangers which they might run through negligence or an ignorance of the prescriptions published. I have considered that it is the principle itself of the bad which should be fought, and I have charged the consultative committee of public hygiene to seek for the practical means of showing the presence of trichinæ in salt pork before delivering it to the consumers.

This verification, to be efficacious, ought to be made by competent men in a restricted number of ports of entry and customs offices on the land frontier, specially designed as ports of entry into France for pork coming from abroad. It has been shown that the introduction into the port of Havre alone, which it is true is much the largest, amounts to no less than 20,000,000 or 30,000,000 kilograms* annually, or an average of 2,500 tonnes† monthly. The microscopical examination of the meat thus imported demands for each operation a long enough time to prevent the analysis in a serious manner of large enough quantities by any staff that would otherwise be employed in the service. The control therefore could only be partial, and consequently inefficacious, and would give to the people only a deceptive security which would compromise at the same time the action of the government. I have been, in consequence, led to renounce entirely all projects of verifying imported pork, at least for the present.

However, it is urgent that an end be put to the real danger which the public health is undoubtedly exposed to by the introduction into France of meat notoriously infested with trichina. As an efficient supervision does not seem to me possible, I consider it as indispensable to forbid, without delay, on all the frontier line of the territory of the republic the importation of salt pork coming from the United States of America. Such a measure has already been taken by many states in Europe. In Prussia, Italy, Austria, Spain, Portugal, and Greece, pork of this origin is no more admitted.

Nevertheless, considering that pork of American origin forms an important part of the food of the lower classes, I shall continue to study the means of resolving the difficulties which this so important a question presents, at the same time assuring to the consumers of these meats the guarantees which they have a right to expect of a vigilant government.

Accept, Monsieur le President, the homage of my respectful devotion.

P. TIRARD,
Minister of Agriculture and of Commerce.

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* Equals 44,000,000 to 66,000,000 pounds.
† The tonne equals 2,204 pounds.

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The President of the French Republic, on the report of the minister of agriculture and of commerce.

In view of the advice of the consultative committee of public hygiene of France
Considering that the introduction into France of salt pork notoriously infested with trichina, presents great dangers to the public health;
Decrees:

ARTICLE 1. In all the territory of the French Republic the importation of salt pork coming from the United States of America is forbidden.

ART. 2. The minister of agriculture and of commerce and the minister of finances are charged, each in that which concerns him, with the execution of the present decree, which will be inserted in the Journal Official and published in the Bulletin des Lois.

Done at Paris, February 18, 1881.

JULES GRÉVY.

By the President of the Republic:

P. TIRARD,
Minister of Agriculture and Commerce.
J. MAGNIN,
Minister of Finances.

THE PROHIBITORY DECREE IN BORDEAUX.

REPORT BY CONSUL GERRISH.

The recent decree of the French Government prohibiting the entry of American salted pork, hams, bacon, and lard, into any port of France, created here, on its promulgation, much excitement, not among importers and retail dealers alone, but among the large class who are the principal consumers.

The terrible trichina had never been observed nor thought of here, and this sudden decree was not only crushing a business that has been developing largely of late, but was depriving a large portion of the population of a cheap and nutritive food.

It appears from official sources that in the last twenty years there has been but one death in France from trichina, and even that has been disputed at the Academy of Medicine lately by one of the most celebrated physicians of France. If, however, in this case, trichina was really the cause of the death, it came from eating the pork of a native hog.

Deaths occur every year from hydrophobia and from the eating of unripe fruit, and still unmuzzled dogs run the streets, and green fruit is sold in the markets without restriction.

The importations at this port directly from the United States of pork, hams, and bacon, for the year 1880, amounted to 5,606,000 pounds. A large quantity in addition came by way of England and Havre. Much of this of course was distributed through neighboring departments, and no one that I can learn has ever had reason to complain of it, except on account of certain hams and pieces of bacon badly cured or enveloped.

I have heretofore believed that there was more reason to fear a loss of this important trade from the latter cause than from trichina. A dishonest shipper in one exportation can destroy a trade worth millions, and if an official inspection were made at the port of shipment, as is made here at the port of debarkation, it would be much to our advantage. Confidence first is wanted, and with that prejudices can be surmounted.

The chamber of commerce, on the reception of the decree of prohibi-

tion, forwarded a vigorous protest to the minister of commerce at Paris, a translation of which I give below.

A question of commerce was also at stake. For more than a year past some of the wealthy and leading citizens of Bordeaux have been laboring to establish a direct line of steamers from here to New York. The amount of capital necessary for a commencement was subscribed and the first steamer left here in December. The freight in return, as was expected and as was calculated upon largely, consisted of pork, hams, &c., but on its arrival the discharging had scarcely commenced when this order prevented any further landing of the cargo.

A rumor that the United States Government had retaliated by a refusal to permit the introduction of French wines there added to the excitement, and the demands at the consulate for positive information were many.

A subsequent order of the French Government, but with great restrictions, permitted a discharge, and also the admission of all cargoes now on the way, which may have left an American port previous to the first decree.

As will be seen, the return freight upon which the company largely counted is forbidden entry, and it is probable that the direct steam communication between the ports of Bordeaux and New York may have to be suspended. This is to be regretted, as the anticipations of the projectors of this line were to make it a rival of the best lines from Liverpool or Havre. New steamers of greater tonnage were gradually to be added with the most approved accommodations for passengers.

One steamer of 2,500 tons has just been purchased and will soon be ready for service. The ever increasing number of Americans desirous of spending the winter in the south of France or in Italy could, in the autumn or spring months, by this line take a more southerly course in crossing the ocean, thus insuring doubtless a better passage, and avoiding the tiresome railway journey from Liverpool or Havre. It is not to be wondered at that the Bordeaux people, whose interests in so many ways are largely compromised, keenly feel the misfortune which this decree of the government entails, and, believing it uncalled for, are so earnest in their solicitations for its revocation.

B. GERRISH.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Bordeaux, March 9, 1881.

Letter from the chamber of commerce, at Bordeaux, to minister of agriculture and commerce, at Paris.

[Translation.]

MONSIEUR LE MINISTRE: Authorized in this matter by the chamber of commerce of Bordeaux, we take the liberty to submit for your approbation certain observations relative to the severe measures of the decree of the 18th of February, by which salted pork coming from the United States is forbidden to be entered in any port of France.

We owe it to you and we owe it to ourselves, Monsieur le Ministre, to state to you with earnestness that in considering this question we understand that the considerations relative to the hygiene and the public health are above all else, and that if the measure decreed by you is really required, it should be enforced; but if, as we believe, your decision has been the results of inexact information, in any event exaggerated: if the dangers which you apprehend are not real, then we do not hesitate to say that this measure is greatly to be regretted, and it seems to us that it ought to be revoked.

In reality this measure will have a double and very serious result; the first will be to take from the public food of great importance, and to enhance enormously the price of similar food produced in France.

Would it not be greatly regretted to take from the laboring classes, and the poorest, this resource for food if not absolutely required?

The second consequence, which certainly is of value, is that it would be a terrible blow to a very important branch of commerce which facilitates our exchanges and gives to our merchant marine a precious value in freight.

Before indicating some of the positive and technical reasons which dictate our opinion, permit us an observation of a general character which appears to meet your attention.

For a long time the solicitude of several governments has been awakened to this great question; scientific researches have been prescribed by them and made with the greatest care; the result has been that they have believed it safe to allow the free entry of these goods for consumption. This has been done in England, Belgium, Holland, Sweden, Norway, Russia, Denmark, Spain, and Germany, which is contradictory to the erroneous information furnished you.

England, which consumes five or six times more of these products than France, is a country, as you know, Monsieur le Ministre, to judge of it by the earnest measures taken concerning the importation of living animals, where the government guards with the greatest vigilance the introduction of goods which may prove deleterious to the public health, and still England does not hesitate to receive these goods by hundreds of thousands of tons. The English Government has certainly reason for its course from the fact that no case of trichina has ever been known in England, therefore it seems to us a fact of considerable importance in our case.

We understand, however, that the example of other nations does not suffice for our guide, and that if measures adopted by them are wrong we ought to act differently.

But in this case it ought to be demonstrated with certainty that the salted pork coming from America has occasioned maladies, while from French pork no danger to the public health has been apprehended; but this does not appear to be the case, if we can judge from the reports of the session of the Academy of Medicine of the 15th of February, published in the Journal Official of the 19th of the same month.

If American pork presents no more dangerous consequences to consumers than French pork, then it seems to us that we ought equally to permit the consumption of American pork or to forbid that of French pork.

We conclude, Monsieur le Ministre, that you desire to make without delay investigations and scientific researches as exact, as complete, and as profound as possible. We demand that a study may be made on salted American pork, on salted and fresh French pork, and also on the living animals crossing our frontiers. We believe that these investigations will demonstrate that American pork presents no more danger as an article of food for the public than pork of any other origin, and if, after careful study, such proves to be the case, we demand that one no more than the other be excluded from consumption. In waiting, however prompt these investigations may be, we believe it our duty to remark, Monsieur le Ministre, with much earnestness, that the decree of the 18th of February has caused great interests to suffer to the extent of millions. We think, then, that temporarily it is desirable that the prohibition be removed, and that the introduction of American meats may be permitted with the necessary precautions of submitting them to a severe inspection which shall put the public beyond all danger.

Up to this time the importation of these meats does not seem to have produced in France the consequences which the government fears; the neighboring countries do not seem to have suffered more than we.

The transitory measure, then, which we propose, in waiting a definite solution, will give much satisfaction to the great interests engaged, and will not be of the slightest risk to the public.

A. LALANDE,
President of the Chamber of Commerce, and others.

FURTHER CONCERNING THE FRENCH DECREE.

REPORT BY MINISTER NOYES, OF PARIS.

Referring to the dispatches which have passed between the State Department and this legation regarding the decree prohibiting the importation of American pork into France, I have the honor to inclose slips from the French newspapers of wide circulation relating to this subject.

The chambers of commerce at Havre, Bordeaux, and Marseilles are

moving actively in the matter, and powerful influences are being organized to secure the revocation of the decree.

I have some reason to think that the French Government is more favorably disposed than heretofore toward our application, and I am confident that within two months, perhaps within one month, the order will be annulled, and a system of thorough inspection organized instead. If this proves to be true, I shall use every endeavor to have the inspection attended with as little annoyance, delay, and loss as possible.

I have not troubled the Department with frequent dispatches on this subject, but I have spared no effort and have lost no opportunity to utilize all the influences and aid at my command, in order to modify public opinion and to secure the free admission of American pork.

I am satisfied beyond all doubt that the amount of trichinæ found in our swine product has been greatly exaggerated. My information is that not over one per cent. is infected, and of the first-class meats less than one per cent.

EDWARD F. NOYES,
Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.

LEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES,
Paris, April 8, 1881.

PREJUDICE AGAINST AMERICAN MEATS IN GERMANY.

REPORT BY CONSUL SMITH, OF MANNHEIM.

In my report of May 3, 1879, I stated that very strong prejudice existed among the people, and especially among the meat-sellers, against American meat. I am now pleased to say that I find in this district and throughout Germany this difficulty in the selling of American meat is disappearing, and were it not for the present high prices of meat in the United States the sales would largely increase.

The importation of American meat to England has increased rapidly, from 1,000,000 pounds in 1875 to 2,000,000 pounds in the first quarter of 1880. Its effect is now being felt on the continent, and soon a large continental demand will exist, more especially for the cheaper portions, such as are needed by the poorer classes—a class that are absolutely in need of more generous food than that which is now provided for them. The organ of the butchers, the Deutsche Fleischer Feitung, published in Berlin, has numerous articles on this subject, and accepts it as inevitable, and welcomes cheap meat to Germany. It urges the government to construct refrigerator railway wagons in order that fresh meat may be sent from the seaboard inland, not only for the needs of the poor people, but for the use of the army, remarking that while the taste of American meat is not so good as that of German meat, yet it contains all the elements of good sound food, and that in a short time the German taste will accommodate itself to it. The paper calls attention to the large and increasing consumption in Germany of American lard, stating that the supply is hardly equal to the demand, as an evidence of the breaking down of prejudiced taste. American lard having what the Germans call a "wild taste," quite different from that of German lard.

It is thought that meat and lard contract a smell and taste from the unclean condition of the ships in which they are exported; that a ship which has been used for the transportation of grain must have an

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odor which the meat will absorb, and that when ships are constructed for and only used for this transportation then the meat and lard will be sweeter and better preserved. Shipments have some times been made by parties unacquainte l with the trade and its difficulties. The sudden rise of the demand and the rapid extension of the market have led to careless shipments, both regarding careful preparation of the meat and an intelligent knowledge of the market.

Regarding the prices of meat, a good criterion for the exporter is the price of meat in 1879, for although the duty on all meats was increased in 1880 from 3 to 12 pfennigs a kilogram, making the present duty 12 marks a 100 gross kilograms with a deduction for tare of 16 per cent., yet there would be a paying profit.

The increased price of meat in the United States in 1880, it being 40 per cent. higher than 1879, reduces the profit to a minimum price and in some places prevented sales.

Large stocks of old pork and hams are reported in Liverpool, supposed to be the result of over speculation and high prices. The firm of Bender & Co., Mannheim, imported in 1879 90,000 kilograms of meat for the poorer classes, in 1880 30,000 kilograms, the falling off being the result of the increased price in the United States.

Shoulders, sides, and bellies used by the poorer classes sold in 1879 at 32 pfennigs per kilogram; in 1880, at 48 pfennigs per kilogram; sugar-cured hams, used by the better classes as a delicacy, sold in 1879 at 62 pfennigs per kilogram; in 1880, at 75 pfennigs per kilogram.

The exporter of hams to Germany should observe especially the entire absence, as far as possible, of trichinæ. While my experience teaches that German and English meat contains as much if not more trichinæ than American, yet the importation and criticism of the American is much more close and severe. Each ham or piece of meat is inspected by the government inspector, and if a trace of trichinæ is found the meat is condemned and destroyed.

On the 18th of October, 91 hogs exported from America to Dresden were examined under the microscope; 14 contained trichinæ and were condemned. This will be quoted in many German papers and thus continue prejudice.

I would again make the recommendation contained in my report of May 3, 1879, in which I wrote at length concerning trichinæ that boards of trade and the government make stringent laws of inspection of each hog with reference to trichinæ before permitting sales; only in this way can producers of pork in the United States command the markets of the world. In every country laws are being introduced regarding the purity of food from poisonous substances, and nothing is to be greater dreaded or is more more disastrous in its final effects than trichinæ.

The exporter should also study the adaptions of the meats sent to any particular market. Among the Germans it is very difficult to overcome their fixed tastes and habits, and the importer will do better by adapting his importations to the market, rather than endeavoring to create a reformation.

In South Germany very little fat meat is used and will not sell well, while in North Germany the meat cannot be too fat. Regard should be paid to the manner in which the meat and hams are cut. In this district hams too salt will not sell. It would be better to send pork that has been salted only three or four weeks, that is, transporting it with as little salt as possible, and not smoked—leaving the smoking to be done here.

Hams imported are apt, through the length of the voyage and the sea

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air, to arrive moldy and dirty, looking comparatively colorless when placed with domestic German hams, which are made to present a lively brown color, which, in addition to their perfect cutting, give them a very attractive appearance. If smoked hams are sent, each one should be put in a well-covered, painted cuirass sack, so as to keep out all vermin. Hams of any kind, especially mild-cured hams, should not be imported in warm weather; they are apt to mold and sweat under the cloth, and unless they are in perfect condition must be re-dressed and re-covered after their arrival; also, unless they are perfectly cured they are apt to breed maggots inside the flesh near the bone, rendering them unsalable. In this district sugar-cured hams are not relished by the better or the lower classes, except when they are eaten uncooked.

The preference of South Germans is for mild, salt-cured hams; consequently the sale of sugar-cured hams is limited. Cheap salted shoulders and sides can be sold to the laboring classes. They sold in 1879 for 32 pfennigs per kilogram; in 1880 from 45 to 48 pfennigs. Heads and feet contain too much bone to make a profitable export, the duty on all meat being paid by gross weight. A case containing 260 kilograms pays 12 marks per 100 kilograms, less 16 per cent. tare.

American bacon is well relished and will be much used in Germany. Sausages were exported from the United States with profit, but by an extra law regarding trichinæ they are now literally prohibited.

American fresh beef is not brought to Mannheim, and, I am informed, not yet to Rotterdam. Live sheep and lambs are exported from Germany to England.

In my report regarding American exportation, dated June 5, 1878, I stated "that either an established depot, from which experienced salesmen, who knew the habits of the German people, could be sent out to establish trade, or salesmen sent by the manufacturer or the producer, are needed to make a successful trade in Germany." I am now inclined to think that for this district and South Germany, depots established in Frankfort-on-the-Main, with commercial travelers selected from the Germans, will give greater success than any other method.

Large and heavy articles can be stored at the seaports and drawn from as sales require. Samples and small goods could be in depot at Frankfort-on-the-Main. Coarse meat of all kinds can at present be better sold by the exporter at the seaport where it arrives.

EDWARD M. SMITH,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Mannheim, January 20, 1881.

AMERICAN LARD IN HAMBURG.

REPORT OF CONSUL WILSON.

I have the honor to hand you herewith an extract (with translation) from the Fremden-Blatt, a prominent newspaper of this city, of even date, wherein is contained a certain quotation from an American newspaper, with editorial comments of the Fremden-Blatt upon the same, respecting the very important staple of American lard; which, as you are well aware, is a leading and constantly increasing article of exportation from our country to this market.

Since all adverse interests are sure to see not only that these reports

are copied into the press of Germany generally but grossly magnified, I deem it a matter of very great importance that the attention of the Department of State be called to the same, at the earliest possible moment.

JAMES M. WILSON,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Hamburg, February 11, 1881.

[From the Hamburg Fremden-Blatt, No. 35, of 11th February, 1881.—Translation.]

The following item, taken from an American newspaper, has created considerable sensation among the importers of American lard:

"A 'neat' business, writes the Herald, of Milwaukee, is the manufacturing of lard from hogs killed by the hog cholera. This business is, however, neither done at Chicago, nor Milwaukee, nor at any of the larger cities, which might thereby ruin their reputation in the provision market, for it shuns the light. But the farmers are not inclined to treat the hundreds of thousands of hogs which die every year of cholera, as a clear loss, and, therefore, sell the carcasses willingly and cheap, if they can only find buyers for the same."

Now the Davenport Daily Gazette contains the following notice:

"A firm in one of our country towns has within the last three months bought and shipped about 200 cwts. lard, produced from the carcasses of expired 'crepirt' hogs, for which it paid about $1,500 (which is not the tenth part of the real market-value of good lard), and we are informed that also another firm is doing a large business in the same article.

"It is, therefore, no immodest query, but a very urgent one, to ask, what becomes of the carcasses of diseased hogs?

"This question is in reality a most important one for our entire commerce, for even the suspicion that lard obtained from diseased hogs, is sold, may prompt the European states to prohibit the importation of American lard and thus ruin one of our most important branches of business.

"The outrage perpetrated in the above-mentioned manner, by greedy, unprincipled speculators, is of so atrocious a nature that no punishment could be hard enough therefor."

The Chambers of Commerce of Chicago and Milwaukee ought to investigate this affair thoroughly and demand from the Davenport Daily Gazette the publication of the intimated firms or a statement of the source whence such information is obtained.

AMERICAN LARD AND PORK IN GERMANY SAID TO BE MANUFACTURED FROM DISEASED SWINE.

REPORT BY CONSUL SMITH, OF MANNHEIM.

I have the honor to report the following translated extracts taken from German newspapers.

[Extract from the Weinheim Anzeiger.]

Dr. Gross, of Pest, counselor of the board of health, impressively warns the public against the use of American pork and lard, and desires government action prohibiting the import of the same. The dangers, he says, have lately essentially increased. In the board of health of the State of Michigan, Dr. H. W. Baker has furnished an ample report of a largely extended epidemic disease among swine, called "hog cholera," from which 26,000 hogs have died in the southwestern forests of this State. This disease is contagious to the highest degree, and also, in the opinion of Dr. Baker, transferable to men. All who have used the meat or lard of such diseased animals have fallen dangerously sick; one of them died soon after.

At Chicago, where millions of hams, smoked hams, and lard are packed, and from where whole cargoes are shipped to Europe, they do not inquire the origin of the dead animals, and without doubt the Yankees will not hesitate, on the occasion of such an

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extended swine disease, to cover their losses through the shipment of the dead hogs to Europe.

Serious measures were also taken in England against the import of pork products from the United States of America.

[Report from Chicago.]

I think I may assume it not to be well known to you that in the stinking factories at Station "Globe," by Chicago, immense quantities of lard from dead animals are produced, a great deal of which is shipped to England and Germany. They say that it is only used for greasing purposes; but who can control its use?

The lard looks white, like snow, and is scentless; thousands of the poorer classes may use it, not anticipating this kind of manufacture. Two daily railway trains of ten to twenty cars are loaded with all dead animals gathered in the city: horses, oxen, cows, hogs, and dogs. The extracted lard is again cleaned by steam. The residuum of the meat is in the neighboring manufactories prepared as guano, and mixed with feathers of chickens bought of the hotels, so as to give it an appearance of genuine guano. The offensive smell spread over the country from these manufactories is a frightful one. The environs of Chicago are nothing but stinking places.

[Extract from the Berlin Tribune.]

A "clean" business is reported from the Herald at Milwaukee: The manufacture of lard from hogs dying from "hog cholera." This business is neither carried on at Chicago nor at Milwaukee, nor at any larger city doing business in hog products and risking their reputation. Yet the farmers are not inclined to regard as a full loss the hundred thousands of swine dying every year of cholera; they sell the carcasses willingly and cheaply to any buyer.

The Davenport Daily Gazette reports as follows:

"One firm residing in one of our country cities bought and shipped during the last three months about 200 hundred-weight of lard gained from the carcasses of dead swine. They paid for it about $1,500 (not a tenth of the market value of good quality). We are also informed that another firm has done considerable business in this article. Now, it is a question, not a modest but an urgent one, "What do they make of the carcasses of dead swine?"

This question is a very important one for our commerce; as only the suspicion that lard gained from dead swine is sold could induce the European Governments to prohibit imports, and ruin in such a manner one of our most important export businesses.

The mischief thus committed by unscrupulous jobbers is so most atrocious that no punishment would be too much for it. The chambers of commerce of Chicago and Milwaukee should carefully investigate the matter, and claim from the Davenport Daily Gazette the name of the foregoing-mentioned firms, or the source from which this notice was drawn.

[Extract from the Düsseldorf Gazette January 20, 1881.]

A fatal accident, that will no doubt induce our board of health to prohibit import, if not examined, of American meat, has caused a great excitement in this city. A citizen bought of a grocer a ham, and by eating the same the whole family was confined to bed. On examination of the rest of this ham, it was found full of trichinæ. Father and mother have already died of this frightful sickness, while the children sickened so dangerously that their recovery is doubtful.

DÜSSELDORF, *February* 3, 1881.

On Tuesday afternoon the third person, viz, the mother of the upholsterer Hermann Thelew, deceased, died of trichinosis.

These statements are evidently exaggerated, yet the fact that there is any basis for such reports should lead exporters to either remove the cause or, if the statements are false, deny them. This can be done through the foreign newspapers by consuls if they are furnished with authentic statements from well-credited parties.

EDWARD M. SMITH,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Mannheim, February 14, 1881.

AMERICAN PORK IN BELGIUM.

REPORT BY CONSUL STEWART, OF ANTWERP.

The recent arbitrary decree of the French Government forbidding the importation of salted pork from the United States into France has called forth the following declaration from the Minister of the Interior of Belgium, in response to an inquiry from a member of the Legislative Chambers, and it is gratifying to know that there is one port and one people not yet ready, through ignorance, prejudice, or jealousy, to drive away from their doors an article of food that has become a necessity and a business that has grown to the dimensions of the pork trade.

A member, alluding to the decree as one that would be likely to create trouble in the country, said that although he was sure from all the information he could gather that there was not a single case of trichina in Belgium, yet it would be very satisfactory to hear officially from the Minister of the Interior that no danger existed.

The Minister of the Interior replied that he could not occupy himself with the measure that had been taken in France, but was able to inform the honorable member in all things concerning trichina in Belgium. For a long time past the government has had under consideration the danger arising from the consumption of salted and pickled pork meat. For twenty years the Academy and the Hygienic Society have examined the question, *but never a single case of trichina has been discovered.* It is established that the cooking renders the meat harmless, and there is very little raw meat consumed in Belgium. *No case of trichina has been brought to my notice, and the government does not intend to take any preventive measures.* It will limit itself to such recommendations as it may deem necessary.

The member declared himself satisfied, and said he had only made the inquiry to give assurance to the country.

A member for Antwerp thanked the minister for his declaration, as the business done in this city in salted pork is very large, and the bourse had been somewhat affected by the French decree.

JOHN H. STEWART,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Antwerp, February 24, 1881.

AMERICAN BACON IN BREMEN.

REPORT BY CONSUL GRINNELL.

The report set on foot by the English vice-consul at Philadelphia concerning the condition of our hogs, which has had, temporarily, such a bad effect in England and France, has been received with apathy, not to say contempt, here. The Bremen merchants are too shrewd and too intelligent to throw away their merchandise because of a false report spread abroad by speculators of a disease among hogs, which, even if it had proved true, would not have injured shipments, the disease—hog cholera—being quite distinct from trichina.

During the panic in England and France, Bremen merchants have been steadily importing our bacon, so that to-day the quantity already received during the five first months of the bacon year, November to November, is equal to the receipts of the whole year previous.

There are few complaints as to the quality or packing of our bacon; indeed, the quality is declared excellent; the boxes only are too frail to sustain the great weight, about 500 pounds, but in this I notice an im-

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provement, notably in the packing of Henry Ames & Co., of Saint Louis, and one or two Milwaukee packers who cleat their boxes.

The article is examined only when the retail pork butcher exposes it for sale. The German Government appoint and maintain an army of argus-eyed examiners who are faithful and active. Two per cent. of American bacon is said to contain trichina.

WILLIAM F. GRINNELL, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Bremen, March 24, 1881.

THE TRICHINA SCARE IN ENGLAND.

REPORT BY COMMERCIAL AGENT SMITH, OF NOTTINGHAM.

The sale of American hams and bacon in Europe having become a very important business, everything calculated to interfere with it must be interesting to a large class of persons in the United States. I therefore beg leave to report some facts which have excited much attention in this community within the last few months.

In June last there was an extensive sale of timber and machinery on the estate of the Duke of Rutland, at Welbeck, Nottinghamshire. The sale lasted five days. A large number of persons were present during the several days; estimated from 1,500 to 2,000. For the accommodation of the visitors, refreshments were provided on the spot, each day, by the proprietress of a hotel with a large trade at Mansfield, and many persons partook of them. Of those who thus partook, a large number residing over a very wide area were subsequently taken ill, some slightly and some severely, and two of those attacked died from their illness. Some fragments of the food supplied at the sale were moreover taken away and distributed to five poor families. Members of those families (who had not been at the sale) were similarly attacked with illness, and two of these persons died.

The refreshments provided consisted of cold boiled hams, cold baked or roasted beef, cold beefsteak pie, mustard and salt, bread and cheese, pickles and chutnee sauce. The drinkables were bottled and draught beer, spirits, ginger beer, lemonade, and water.

The hams were what are known as "American hams." Seven hams were sent to Welbeck: Six were purchased of a tradesman at Mansfield and cooked in the hotel kitchen; one was purchased, ready cooked, from a coffee tavern in Mansfield. The seventh ham was cured and dried in America. The six purchased from the first-mentioned tradesman had been made on his business out of six legs of salted American pork which had been purchased of a merchant at Hull.

The beef sent from the hotel was all supplied by one butcher in Mansfield, who kills his own meat. The bread, cheese, pickles, and condiments were such as were in habitual use in the hotel. Ample evidence, derived from considerations of distribution, soon disproved any causative relation of the water and other drinkables with the occurrence of disease.

The food cooked at the hotel was stored in a pantry that was not in a satisfactory sanitary condition, there being an opening into a sewer which caused offensive smells, and under a cupboard in the pantry was found a vessel containing several pieces of ham and pork in a moldy and maggoty condition.

The refreshment rooms at Welbeck seem to have been in themselves cleanly, but they also had an opening into a sewer, which was the gen-

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eral sewer for that part of the estate, and received sewage from water-closets of residences, from stables, cow-sheds, &c., and were not provided with any means of ventilation, the only ventilation being into the building containing the refreshment rooms. The unconsumed provisions were each night stored in this building for future use.

With regard to the persons who partook of refreshments at Welbeck and were subsequently taken ill, Dr. Edward Ballard, from whose exhaustive report it got the facts stated herein, says:

Of these I have more or less complete record of the illness of seventy-two, and I had given me assurances of a similar illness having occurred in a considerable number of other persons who had attended and taken refreshments at the sale, so that it is certain that those seventy-two were by no means all that suffered. On the other hand, I myself inquired personally into twenty-two instances of individuals who had partaken of the same kind of refreshments as those who had suffered and yet escaped illness altogether. Probably there were very many more escapes than those, since it was far more likely that I should hear of the sufferers than of those who did not suffer. In fact, in the course of my inquiry, I heard casually of several more of that class. We may take it, I think, that at least one-half, probably more than one-half, of those who partook of certain solid refreshments ate them without injury.

Dr. Ballard gives particulars of the cases of persons who were taken ill and of those who died, which I do not think it necessary to repeat. The cases of death included both persons who had and others who had not been at Welbeck.

It appears that part of the food was taken back to the hotel from Welbeck and eaten there without any ill effects.

Dr. Ballard gives the characteristics of the disease under the general description of "diarrheal illness." I do not think it necessary to go into the details of the several cases. He says:

The mildest cases were characterized usually by little remarkable beyond the following symptoms, viz, abdominal pains, vomiting, diarrhea, thirst, headache, and muscular weakness, any one or two of which might be absent.

He also gives the results of some post-mortem examinations, the details of which you will see in his report sent herewith.

As to the cause of the disease, Dr. Ballard says:

Keeping in view the series of cases at Mansfield, where persons of different families who had not been at Welbeck were, nevertheless, ill after eating what was brought from thence, no hypothesis as to the cause which does not refer to the meat dispensed there or to the mustard laid upon it within the sandwiches can be entertained. The mustard was Coleman's mustard, part of a keg of mustard in habitual use at the hotel and, therefore, free from suspicion. Obviously it was either the ham or the beef, or both, which had done the mischief.

He then says that some of the people complained of the taste of the ham, &c. He proceeds:

Some of the medical men who attended the sick professionally suspected that the hams were trichinosed and that they might have been treating cases of trichina disease. But although I felt bound to respect this suspicion I did not at any time seriously entertain it myself.

I, myself, thought it more probable that the meat, exposed to the influence of sewer air might, after night, in the lower refreshment room, have, perhaps, undergone some chemical change short of actual putrefaction which had rendered it unwholesome. On the whole I felt much in the dark and with a view of obtaining light on the subject, and to tell so far as was practicable the correctness of the above notion, I set on foot the experiments which I am about to detail. The result has been not only the refutation of both the above notions, but of detecting in the hams the presence of a morbific element which, so far as I know, is now for the first time demonstrated.

For the experiments I refer you to Dr. Ballard's report inclosed. The results which are claimed to have been attained by those experiments and which are most important, were:

1st. The absence of trichina in the ham was established. 2d. The presence in all three portions of ham, raw ham and the cooked ham, both that which had been and that which had not been exposed to sewer air, of a species of bacillus, with sporules

of the same, was demonstrated. The bacilli threads and sporules were in connection with the muscular fiber and in the intermuscular tissue. * * * 5th. In the kidney of W. W. there were discovered evidences parenchymatous inflammation, and the apparent articles and capillaries of the malpigham corpuscules were plugged with emboli formed of masses of bacilli.

In these observations and experiments we have a clue to the solution of the difficulty which the ordinary methods failed to furnish. In two hams, taken indiscriminately out of the same consignment, there was found a *living parasitic thing*, capable of spreading by its growth and reproduction through the material in which it was found, and *capable of producing disease in animals into whose systems it was introduced, capable also of growth and reproduction within the system of these animals.* Taking into consideration the fact that a number of persons who ate of ham of the same consignment suffered from disease induced by such eating, and the further fact that in the kidney of one of them large numbers of bacilli (similar to those found in the hams experimented with) were found, it appears reasonable to infer that some of the hams of that consignment were similarly affected with the parasite, and that *either the parasite itself or some virus essentially associated with it was the active agent in the production of the diseased condition* observed in the human subjects of the epidemic.

A few days ago a case of supposed pork poisoning occurred in this town. In this case the pork used was said to have been from pigs brought from Ireland. In this case one man had died and his wife had suffered but recovered. Their children, who did not eat of the pork, escaped. It is also said that 14 other persons suffered more or less after eating of the same lot of pork.

These cases were examined by Dr. Seaton, medical officer of health, of this place. There was a *post mortem* examination in the presence of Dr. Ballard, and parts of the body and blood of the victim were taken to London for examination by Dr. Klein. The results seem to be that about the same conditions were found as in the Welbeck cases. The same bacilli were found as in those cases.

Only yesterday I saw in the newspapers mention of a case of pork poisoning in the neighboring county of Derby.

Upon the two last cases I may write you again.

JOSEPH SMITH,
Commercial Agent.

UNITED STATES COMMERCIAL AGENCY,
Nottingham, March 9, 1881.

[From the British Medical Journal.—Transmitted to the Department of State by Commercial Agent Smith, of Nottingham, England.]

PORK POISONING AT WELBECK: DESCRIPTION OF A NEW INFECTIVE ORGANISM IN HAMS.

An official report by Dr. Ballard, medical inspector of the local government board, on the remarkable outbreak of diarrheal illness that occurred among the persons attending the sale at Welbeck Abbey, in June of last year, has just been issued by the local government board. It proves to be a document of singular interest and importance, full of suggestion for future observers. It may be remembered that, at the death of the late Duke of Portland, there was an extensive sale of timber and machinery on his Welbeck estate. Partly for business, and partly to see a remarkable place, people from all parts of Nottinghamshire, and from Yorkshire, Lincolnshire, and Derbyshire, as well as from Bedfordshire, and probably even more distant localities, flocked to Welbeck in such numbers, that, on two days, it was estimated that from fifteen hundred to two thousand persons were present. For the accommodation of the visitors, refreshments were provided on the spot, and many persons partook of them. Of those who thus partook, a large number, residing over a very wide area, were subsequently taken ill, some slightly and some severely, and two of those attacked died. Some fragments of the food supplied at the sale were, moreover, taken away and distributed to five poor families; and members of these who had not been at the sale, were similarly attacked by illness, and two of them died. This in itself was tolerably strong proof that the outbreak was due to some article of food; and Dr.

Ballard, by an exhaustive process of exclusion of other things, reduces this proof to a logical certainty, and shows that the disease must have been caused, in some way or other, by the ham consumed at the sale.

The number of persons attacked was ascertained to have been at least seventy-two, and there were assurance of similar illnesses having occured in a considerable number of other persons who had taken refreshments at the sale—so that it is certain that these seventy-two were by no means all that suffered. Only seven of this number were females; the explanation being that the women who journeyed to the sale went for pleasure (usually in parties of several together), and in many instances took their own refreshments with them. The solid refreshments sold at Welbeck were mostly eaten by the men. All the seventy-two persons had partaken either of a meat luncheon or of sandwiches; forty-two of them had eaten luncheon, and thirty had eaten sandwiches—mostly only one sandwich. Of twenty-two persons who had not suffered after the refreshments, eleven had eaten luncheon and eleven only sandwiches. From these circumstances, especially taken in conjunction with the fact that, on the whole, the number of persons who merely took a sandwich was far larger than the number who took lunch, the inference may be drawn that a larger (probably a much larger) proportion of those who ate largely of the provisions suffered subsequently than of those who ate sparingly.

The symptoms of the illness were sufficiently remarkable to merit particular notice. Dr. Ballard speaks of the attacks under the name of "diarrheal illness," because diarrhea was the most constant of all the symptoms observed, and the other symptoms were in some respects so peculiar that he was indisposed to give to the disease any name otherwise generally recognized. As might have been anticipated, there were varieties in severity among the cases investigated; and symptoms strongly marked in some were slightly marked, or altogether wanting, in others. A period of incubation, usually from twelve to thirty-six hours, preceded the illness. In many cases the first definite symptoms occurred suddenly and unexpectedly; but, in some cases, there were observed during the incubation more or less feeling of languor and ill health, loss of appetite, nausea, or fugitive griping pains in the belly. However the attack might have commenced, it was usually not long before pain in the abdomen, diarrhea, and vomiting came on, diarrhea being of more certain occurrence than vomiting. The pain was usually very severe, quickly producing prostration or faintness, with cold sweats. The diarrheal discharges were, in some cases, quite unrestrainable, and were said to have been exceedingly offensive, and usually of a dark color. Muscular weakness was an early and very remarkable symptom in nearly all cases. Headache, sometimes severe, was a common and early symptom; and in most cases there was thirst, often intense and most distressing. The tongue was described usually as thickly coated with a brown velvety fur, but red at the tip and edges. In the early stage the skin was often cold to the touch; but afterwards some fever set in, the temperature rising in some cases to 101°, 103°, and 104°. The pulse in the height of the illness became quick, counting in some cases 100 to 128. In fatal cases, death was preceded by a collapse like that of cholera, and the debility of convalescence was, in nearly all cases, protracted to several weeks.

The facts adduced by the inquiry all tended to show that it was the ham consumed at the sale that had caused the mischief. Both the appearance and the flavor of the ham were a good deal complained of by those who partook of it. But as to the exact manner of its becoming invested with injurious qualities, no direct evidence was procurable. Dr. Ballard, therefore, set about a number of experiments, which had a very remarkable and unlooked-for result. He obtained the residue of a ham that had been used at the sale, and suspended half of this in the partially open manhole of a sewer on the Welbeck premises that had been suspected of causing the mischief. This, with the other half and part of an uncooked ham from the same consignment, a piece of the kidney of one of the fatal cases, and some other matters, were sent to Dr. Klein for microscopical examination and experiment. The results of these investigations were to establish the absence of trichinæ in the ham, which had been suspected by some of the medical attendants of the cases; but to demonstrate the presence in all three portions of ham—the raw ham and the cooked ham, both that which had been and that which had not been exposed to sewer-air—of a species of bacillus, with sporules of the same; the bacillus-threads and sporules being in connection with the muscular fiber and in the intermuscular tissue. Bacillus-material from the raw ham and from that portion of the cooked ham which had not been exposed to the sewer-air was successfully cultivated in the incubator. Experiments upon animals, by feeding or inoculation, were made both with material from the hams and with the cultivated material. Those made with the portion of ham exposed to the sewer-air produced only negative results; but those made with the raw ham, and with the portion of cooked ham not so exposed, produced in all but a few instances positive and remarkable results, viz, disease in the animals experimented on. The morbid condition produced in the animals, and found on *post-mortem* examination, was most uniformly pneumonia (in one instance, with pleuritis) or pulmonary hyperæmia. In the case of two dogs fed and

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inoculated with the cooked ham, and killed on the eighth day, evidence was found after death of severe desquamative hyperæmia or inflammation of the stomach and intestines, the contents of which contained bacilli and a few pus-corpuscles. In the kidney of one of the persons who had died of the disease were discovered evidences of parenchymatous inflammation; and the afferent arterioles and capillaries of the Malpighian corpuscles were found plugged with emboli formed of masses of bacilli.

In these observations and experiments Dr. Ballard finds a clue to the origin of the outbreak, which the ordinary methods of inquiry failed to furnish. In two hams taken indiscriminately out of the same consignment, there was found a living parasitic body, capable of spreading by its growth and reproduction through the material in which it was found, and capable of producing disease in animals into whose system it was introduced; capable also of growth and reproduction within the system of these animals. Taking into consideration the fact that a number of persons who ate of ham of the same consignment suffered from disease induced by such eating, and the further fact that in the kidney of one of them large numbers of bacilli (similar to those found in the hams experimented with) were found, it appears reasonable to infer that some of the hams of that consignment were similarly affected with the parasite; and that either the parasite itself, or some virus essentially associated with it, was the active agent in the production of the diseased condition observed in the human subjects of the epidemic, and in the animals which were experimented on by Dr. Klein. Dr. Ballard accounts for the powerlessness of the ham exposed to sewer-air to produce specific injury to animals by the hypothesis of Dr. Klein (which is in harmony with the views that assigns to the bacilli an essential share in the production of the disease), that the progress of common decomposition may have destroyed the specifically harmful quality of the meat, without altering the microscopic characters of the bacilli. These questions of reinfection and of ultimate destruction of infection during one and another stage of decomposition are, as Dr. Ballard correctly observes, of the greatest interest in zymotic pathology; and the occurrences at Welbeck, as interpreted in his report, shed a flood of new and important light upon a subject as to which there is evidently very much more to be learned.

FALSE REPORTS IN GREAT BRITAIN.

REPORT BY MINISTER LOWELL.

Something like a panic has lately been produced in the pork trade between the United States and this country, by means of reports sedulously put in circulation, as I have little doubt, by speculators aiming at a great and sudden fall in prices. The importance of the trade may be judged by the fact that 350,000 tons of pork, or products of the pig in various forms, were imported into England from America last year, if I am correctly informed.

For some time the newspapers have been full of reports of the abundant presence of trichinæ in American swine, and of the consequent danger of eating their flesh in any of its forms. These were followed by stories of great mortality by cholera of hogs in the Western States. Before long, deaths were reported at Nottingham and Dublin, in consequence of eating American ham, and were attributed to trichinosis. Inquiry showed that there was not a particle of proof either that those persons had eaten of such ham or had died of the alleged disease.

The alarm produced by so much persistent fabrication and assertion led to a question being asked in parliament (on the 1st March) and very satisfactorily answered on behalf of the privy council by Mr. Mundella, who treated the reports as unfounded, and the cases of death as in no sense traceable to American pork. Mr. Mundella is fully aware of the great importance of the trade in cheapening food to the poorer classes in England, and entirely disposed to prevent any unnecessary restrictions upon it.

I should be glad to know whether any system of inspection of pork exists in the United States; whether it is under the sanction of national

authority or not; and whether it is so applied as to be efficacious. Considering the very great interests involved, it might be thought that those engaged in the trade at home would, for their own protection, insist on the very strictest supervision by competent officials.

I have kept Mr. Mundella supplied with whatever information I had on the subject, and this morning communicated officially to the Times a copy of your last telegram.

J. R. LOWELL,
Minister Plenipotentiary and Envoy Extraordinary.

LEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES,
London, March 9, 1881.

PROHIBITION OF AMERICAN PORK IN ITALY.

REPORT BY MINISTER MARSH, OF ROME.

I have the honor to inclose to you herewith copies of the correspondence between this legation and the consulate of the United States at Genoa, and between the legation and the ministry of foreign affairs, relating to the importation into Italy of pork from America. Having no instructions or other precise information on the subject, I have not replied to the minister's note.

G. P. MARSH,
Minister Plenipotentiary and Envoy Extraordinary.

LEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES,
Rome, March 14, 1861.

Consul Hazelton, of Genoa, to Minister Marsh.

CONSULATE OF THE UNITED STATES,
Genoa, February 5, 1881.

SIR: I have the honor to forward a letter from Messrs. Granet Brown & Co., of this city, asking your influence with the Italian Government in obtaining the repeal of the law prohibiting the importation of pork into Italy. This house carries on a large trade with the United States in petroleum, and is one of the most reliable business houses in Genoa.

I think that the statements contained in the inclosed letter are substantially correct, and that if the aforesaid law is repealed an important trade in hams and bacon will be the result. The price of meat in Genoa is very high, the common people being unable to enjoy it except on rare occasions, perhaps four or five times a year. If it can be imported without an excessive duty, it will result in a substantial benefit to the consumer as well as to the dealer.

I am, &c.,

J. F. HAZELTON, *Consul.*

The Hon. GEORGE P. MARSH,
Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of the United States.

Granet Brown & Co. to Minister Marsh.

GENOA, *February* 3, 1881.

SIR: At the request of many commercial houses in this city and in the United States of America, who like ourselves are interested in the trade in American bacon and hog products, we beg to submit the following facts to your notice.

About a year ago the Italian Government, on the assumption that the importation

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of bacon, hams, and other raw American meat was injurious to the public health, absolutely prohibited the importation of the same into this country. The consequence of this prohibition, promoted as it probably was by a few parties interested in excluding the competition of imported provisions with native produce, is, that an active and daily increasing trade with the United States has been arbitrarily suppressed without adequate grounds, to the manifest detriment of trade, to the receipts of the Italian customs, and especially to the interests of the generally consuming public.

It is unnecessary for us here to draw your excellency's attention to the character of the pleas upon which the suppression of this trade is based, confuted as they are by the statistics of the very large and in every sense healthy trade existing in American hog produce with all other European countries, nor need we appeal to the principles of fairness and reciprocal advantage to trade which we judge to be violated by this legislation. We beg, however, to inclose a memorandum containing some statistics with reference to the matter, which was distributed last year in Genoa.

Finally, we beg leave to appeal to your excellency to beg that your influence may be used to have our case presented in the proper quarter to the Italian Government in Rome, in the interest of your American compatriots, and with a view to obtaining the prompt repeal of the prohibition to trade in the said important produce of the United States.

With which request we have the honor to remain, your excellency's, &c.,

GRANLT BROWN & CO.

The United States minister to the Italian minister for foreign affairs.

LEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES,
Rome, February 21, 1881.

YOUR EXCELLENCY: Through the consulate of the United States at Genoa I have received communications from persons at that port interested in American trade complaining of certain recent alleged custom-house or governmental regulations as greatly restricting, if not entirely abolishing, the liberty of importation of salted, smoked, or otherwise preserved pork from the United States, which has become an important branch of trade between America and the European ports.

This legation has never been officially notified of any obstruction or impediment, local or general, to this trade, and I respectfully ask, for information of my government and of American shippers, when and by what authority, superior or administrative, the decrees in question, if such exist, were issued, whether they are absolute or conditional, whether they are limited as to time or place, or are permanent and general in their application; and whether it is thought to have been established by official investigation that any prejudicial consequences to the public health have resulted from the importation and consumption of such meats.

I avail myself of this occasion to renew to your excellency the assurance of my high consideration.

GEORGE P. MARSH.

Note from the Italian minister of foreign affairs.

[Translation.]

ROME, *February* 28, 1881.

MR. MINISTER: In reply to your note of the 21st instant, I hasten to inform you that since the beginning of the year 1879, it having been ascertained that pork affected by trichina had arrived in the kingdom coming from Cincinnati and other parts of the American Union where that disease was proved to exist, the ministry of the interior prohibited, by a sanitary order dated February 20th of the same year, No. 5, the importation of swine, as well as of their flesh or any parts of their body, in whatever manner prepared or preserved, exported from the United States of America.

On finding afterwards that pork was brought into the kingdom by way of land, coming from places where trichina existed, the prohibition by a succeeding order, dated May 6, 1879, No 13, was extended to foreign pork coming from any place whatever, even by way of land.

Nothwithstanding the earnest remonstrance of the trade which called for the revocation of that measure the aforementioned ministry, after having several times taken the advice of the superior board of health for guidance in their decision, concluded that the moment for the rescinding of that prohibition would not have come until the information received was such as to mitigate the gravity of the disease.

Only last year the aforesaid board was requested to examine again the subject; but in their meeting of the 30th of June the board expressed the opinion that in the inter-

est of the public health the prohibition should be maintained absolute and general so long as assurances were not forthcoming such as to give reason to believe that all danger of infection had ceased.

In view of this opinion emphatically expressed by the first sanitary body of the state, and no information having been received on the subject in any way satisfactory, the Government of the King could but determine—nor could it do otherwise—to enforce firmly the prohibition imposed by the order before cited until the receipt of such information as would relieve it of all responsibility in a matter of such serious importance.

In transmitting to you, herewith inclosed, a copy of the order of May 6, 1879, I avail myself of this occasion to renew to you, Mr. Minister, the assurance of my high consideration.

For the minister :

A. PEIROLERI.

Hon. GEO. P. MARSH,
Minister of the United States, Rome.

AMERICAN PORK IN AMSTERDAM.

REPORT BY CONSUL ECKSTEIN.

I have the honor to state that I have recently read correspondence and editorials in some of the principal newspapers of this city and Rotterdam upon the subject of certain reports relating to excessive and wide spread disease of hogs in Illinois, and of the action of the French Government in prohibiting the importation of pork from the United States.

The purport and tenor of these newspaper publications had a strong tendency to alarm the public and create a bias against the use of American pork and the hog product generally.

I have also read in the London Times a number of telegrams, on same subject, coming from New York and Philadelphia, showing that there exists in the United States considerable excitement and indignation in consequence of what are considered and claimed to be very greatly exaggerated and unjustifiable reports which have been sent abroad concerning the sanitary condition of the swine in Illinois and other Western States during the year 1880 and at present.

The telegrams referred to also speak of action taken by chambers of commerce in different cities, and by the Department of State, for the purpose of proving that the facts in the case in no way warrant the reports, and which already have greatly injured an important American interest and threaten still further to do so.

Under these circumstances I felt called upon and deemed it proper to make an effort to counteract, as far as in my power and within my limited sphere, the threatened harmful effects upon the imports of and trade in the article here likely to be caused by the too free circulation of the reports in question.

To this end I availed myself of the opportunity offered me to confer verbally with the proper city and port authorities, and succeeded in accomplishing all I could desire or expect. They expressed themselves to me as greatly appreciating my coming to them to discuss the subject, and gave me the assurance that any and all reports concerning the same of a doubtful character will, so far as they were concerned, be subjected to scrupulous and close investigation; that no such reports will be allowed to exert upon them any undue influence, and that will do all they can consistently do to prevent the public here from being prejudiced, and the trade in the article from being injured.

I have also had an interview with the editors of the principal newspaper here, the Handelsblad, and after discussing the subject with them obtained their promise that they will hereafter frequently publish in their paper the American version, or any authentic accounts on the subject which may reach them, either in the form of telegrams to the London press or otherwise.

My object in doing this was to bring, if possible, a knowledge of the actual state of the facts in the matter to those classes of the community which are the principal consumers of American pork, bacon, ham, &c., and which, as a rule, read only the Dutch papers.

My action in this matter, in the absence of any special instructions from the Department asking or authorizing it, will, I trust, be appreciated and approved.

D. ECKSTEIN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Amsterdam, March 21, 1881.

AMERICAN PORK IN SWITZERLAND.

REPORT BY CONSUL MASON, OF BASLE.

Referring to dispatch No. 27 from this consulate, under date of February 26, reporting to the Department that a motion had been announced for debate in the Federal Council of Switzerland with a view to the enactment of a law to prohibit the importation of American hams, bacon, lard, and other hog products into Switzerland, I would now report that the motion has been changed to a request for inquiry as to what measure should be taken to guard against the damages that might arise from such importations. Public opinion on this subject has been considerably modified during the past few days, and it does not seem probable that any prohibitory measure will be enacted during the present session.

I have the honor to inclose also two articles from the Basler Nachrichten, with translations of the same.

FRANK H. MASON,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Basle, March 2, 1881.

[From the Basler Nachrichten.—Translation.]

Mr. F. H. Mason, consul of the United States of America, at Basle, writes us:

"Will you kindly permit me to contribute a few words to the discussion of the subject of American meats, which is now going on in the newspapers? Whoever wishes to form a just opinion must bear in mind the following facts:

"I. That all hams, shoulders, bacon, and lard intended for export from the United States to Europe are twice carefully inspected by official inspectors, once at the place where the hogs are killed, and once at the sea-port where the meat is shipped.

"II. That there is no record of any person being infected with trichina from eating salted meats. The danger of trichinosis comes from eating freshly-killed pork, which is not properly cooked. The case of trichinosis in France, which produced the recent agitation on that subject and led to the decree interdicting American meats, is now officially declared to have been caused by eating the meat of a newly-killed pig, which had been raised in France, and was not cooked at all.

"III. That in England, where the inspection of imported articles of food is the most careful and rigorous in the world, there was imported from the United States between November 1, 1880, and the 15th of January, 1881 (ten weeks), not less than 36,351,000 pounds of lard, and 137,987,500 pounds of salted hog's flesh, and not a single case of trichina or impurity has been found.

"IV. During a period of two years the principal importer of American meats in

Basle had all his meats inspected by a city inspector, and at the end of that period this inspection was discontinued by the city authorities because they thought it no longer necessary.

"V. The government of Belgium, which country imports large quantities of American meats, refuses to follow the example of France, and it is already announced by the French journals that the French governmental decree against those meats will be at once either essentially modified or wholly repealed.

"Switzerland in 1879 exported to the United States more than 60,000,000 francs worth of manufactured products, and imported in return only the value of 10,000,000 francs from that country. The reports of 1880 will show a still further disparity in favor of Switzerland. Is this causeless effort to prohibit one class of imports, which gives the Swiss people cheaper food, just or wise?"

[Translation.]

EUROPEAN HOG'S FLESH.

In the midst of the great clamor about American hog flesh, it has been forgotten that there is also a considerable importation of European hogs into our country, in which the only so-called "Berne hams" are to be first considered. Here it is well known to us that by this kind of importation many abuses occur. May not, therefore, our sanitary police begin with a very careful inspection of this class of European meats? Even Swiss swine may also be infected with trichina.

TRICHINATED PORK IN GERMANY.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL LEE, OF FRANKFORT-ON-THE-MAIN.

The outcry which has lately been raised all over the European Continent with respect to American pork, on the ground of its alleged infection with trichina, makes it seem to me proper to devote a little attention to the quality, in respect to trichina, of the pork produced in this part of the world.

The methods of feeding and growing swine here and in the United States are essentially different, and this difference is, in my opinion, of a nature to produce a fair presumption in favor of the superior quality of American pork. In this part of Germany, and in most sections of this empire, the practice prevails of keeping swine, as well as cattle and all other live stock, constantly confined in pens and stables. The animals are rarely permitted to ramble in the fields and forests, and never in the streets. Swine are, therefore, fed mostly on slops and offal, not unfrequently containing elements not encouraging to the idea of healthy nutrition. Grass, mast, and Indian corn constitute a very inconsiderable portion of the materials upon which hogs are raised and fattened.

The continual confinement to which the animals are subjected seems also contrary to the conditions of healthy growth. Exercise, open air, and natural food are alike, by such confinement, denied them.

American swine, on the other hand, are grown mostly out of doors, where they obtain healthy food, and are less likely to consume the vermin, which are popularly supposed to be one source of trichina infection. They are generally fattened on Indian corn, rather than on slops and offals.

I know of no statistics from which an accurate conclusion can be derived as to whether European or American swine are the healthier; but in the absence of such statistics the facts above stated seem to raise a strong presumption in favor of the latter. This presumption is fortified by some facts that have come to my knowledge. The instances in which trichina are found in German pork are quite sufficient to justify alarm as to the consumption of that article, especially in a raw state. For

example, the following notices of such discoveries have appeared in the newspapers of this city during and since the year 1879:

[From the Frankfurter Intelligenz Blatt of April 27, 1879.]

In the shop of a master butcher of this city a 113-pound hog was yesterday found to be infected with trichina, and was therefore seized.

[From the same paper of September 16, 1879.]

Among the butchered hogs examined yesterday in Sachsenhausen one was found to contain trichina. The butcher was forbidden to sell the hog for other than technical purposes.

[From the Frankfurter Zeitung of September 21, 1879.]

A hog examined this morning by Mr. Magnus, of Bockenheim, was found to contain trichina. It was given over to the wasenmeister. It belonged to a butcher in the Saalgasse.

[From the Frankfurter Stadt Anzeiger of April 24, 1880.]

A 250-pound sow, from Preungesheim, was yesterday found by Mr. Inspector J. May, in Bockenheim, to be impregnated with trichina through and through.

[From the Frankfurter Zeitung of June 23, 1880.]

A hog strongly impregnated with trichina was found by the veterinary surgeon, Herr Wagner, in the shop of butcher Smith, in Sachsenhausen, yesterday, and was given over to the wasenmeister.

[From the Frankfurter Zeitung of March 22, 1881.]

The report has reached us that a hog strongly impregnated with trichina has been found in the shop of one of our city butchers.

[From the Frankfurter Stadt Anzeiger of March 24, 1881.]

A butcher at the market slaughtered a hog of 300 pounds which, upon examination, was found to be impregnated with trichina through and through.

[From the Frankfurter General Anzeiger of March 26, 1881.]

Of 190,288 hogs which were examined in the district of Cassel during the year 1880, 66 were found to contain trichina.

It is possible that the detection of trichina in Germany may be more frequent than it is in the United States, owing to the more rigid inspection which prevails in this country, but at the same time it should be said that during the period within which the foregoing discoveries were made, no case of the finding of trichina in American pork has happened, although that article, which is imported and consumed here in large quantities, has been subjected to the same inspection as the German. It may be further stated that, up to the present time, no trichinated American pork has, so far as known, ever been offered in this market.

As to the system of inspection which now prevails here, it may be remarked that propositions are now pending for its reorganization on a basis of a greater thoroughness. In some of the German cities the butchers have themselves taken the lead in this matter, and have not only provided for a careful examination of all the pork slaughtered, but have organized insurance companies by means of which they indemnify one another for the loss of confiscated swine in which trichina are found. Provision is also made for reducing this loss to the lowest point, by the adoption of processes by means of which the fatty parts of trichinated swine are separated and purified, and the remainder of the carcass is reduced to compost for fertilizing purposes. These arrangements seem to have practical value, and may be worthy the consideration of American butchers and packers.

ALFRED E. LEE,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Frankfort-on-the-Main, March 31, 1881.

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NOTES.

CONSULAR.

1. The Department, in its Circular Letter advising consuls of the passage of the law providing for the more frequent publication of their reports, requested that each communication intended for these special publications should, if possible, be confined to one subject; and in most cases this request has been complied with. Many consuls, however, still adhere to the old practice of embracing more than one subject in single dispatches, entailing the labor of dividing the same upon the Department, in order to comply with its established rule in this regard. It is probable that consuls embrace more than one subject in single dispatches fearing that otherwise their reports might not be voluminous enough; but while the Department does not desire to cramp its consuls in this regard it wishes them to understand that their reports are not judged according to their weight or volume, but according to their directness, clearness, and comprehensiveness, and that the more graphic their reports are—provided their lucidity is not impaired by condensation—the more praiseworthy are they considered, and the more profitably and surely are they read by the people. Where minor subjects cannot be treated in such a manner as to entitle them to places in the body of these publications, they can be so arranged as to be inserted among the notes. Thus provision is made for the publication of all consular communications, long and short, and it is to be hoped that the "one-subject-in-one-dispatch" request will henceforth be complied with.

2. Consuls are further requested to properly acknowledge, either in the body of their reports or in foot-notes, the sources from which their information—statistical information especialiy—is derived. It is not expected that consular reports, commercial or otherwise, can always be written without drawing upon some reliable authority, and while the acknowledgment thereof does not detract from the worth and ability of the consul, it adds materially to the value of the reports—giving such corroborative references as readers of statistics are in the habit of expecting. A few complaints in this connection have already been made by foreign authors and statisticians; hence this notice.

3. In a large number of cases, consuls use the word America as applying to the United States, viz, imports from *America*, and exports to *America*, when they refer to the United States solely. The Europeans, as a rule, use the word America when referring to the United States, and its use in the same sense by the consuls is, doubtless, the reflex of the public expression which surrounds them. Consuls are, therefore, requested to guard against the synonymous use of the words, for, in commercial reports, at least, it is both incorrect and misleading.

AMERICAN PORK.

WASHINGTON, *May* 15, 1881.

In view of the recent action taken by the French and other European governments in regard to American pork, as well as to be able to correct by positive and personal evidence the exaggerated reports which are published in Europe concerning hog cholera and trichinæ among American swine, Secretary Blaine sent the Chief of the Bureau of Statistics of the

Department of State to Chicago and Cincinnati to investigate the entire question of hog raising and pork packing in the West in all its phases, "from the farm to the ship." In accordance with the Secretary's instructions this gentleman visited representative hog raisers, buyers, shippers, packing houses, stock-yards, rendering establishments, health officers, and forwarding agents, and has now submitted his report, which will be immediately published by the Department for circulation in Europe.

The conclusions arrived at in this report are as follows:

1. That the swine of America are of the best and purest breeds and are fed and fattened for market on corn. It is not believed that swine are thus fed in any other country.

2. That the reports published in Europe concerning the deaths of American hogs from hog cholera are gross exaggerations.

3. That the percentage of deaths among American swine from disease is no greater than the percentage of deaths among European swine from similar diseases.

4. That the American hogs which have died or may die of cholera, or from any cause whatever, either natural or accidental, can have no relation to the meat product except to decrease it, as such animals cannot by any possibility pass the severe scrutiny and inspection to which hogs destined for killing and curing are subjected; that, even if it were possible to pass such inspection, no art of the curer could convert such animals into meat which could pass the inspection, in the words of a leading curer, "even of a blind man."

5. That the fears excited and fostered in many parts of Europe by interested persons that any portions of hogs which have died or may die of cholera or from any other cause are or can be converted into merchantable lard are founded upon gross ignorance; for merchantable lard cannot be produced from such dead animals.

6. That every pound of the product rendered from diseased hogs, except that part used as a fertilizer, is plainly marked "brown grease," "white grease," or "dead hogs' grease," and sold as such, largely to soap manufacturers, and that its color and odor preclude it from being mistaken for lard.

7. That the same care is taken in the handling and manufacture of American lard which is taken in the handling and curing of American meats, and that, as the corn-fed American hog is the cleanest of its species anywhere, it is undeniable that American lard is the purest lard in any market.

8. That the percentage of American hogs infected with trichinæ (though this question of trichinæ is thus far largely one of supposition) is in all probability, by reason of the superiority of the breed and feed, much less than that among the hogs in any other country.

9. That the freedom from trichinosis of the two great pork consuming centers of the West, Chicago and Cincinnati, furnishes the strongest possible evidence of the purity of American pork. In Chicago for a series of years, in which 40,000 deaths were reported, with their causes, only two cases of trichinosis were reported. In Cincinnati during the same period not one case was reported.

10. That the reported cases of trichinosis have resulted from eating uncooked meat shown to be inferior or rejected, and that thorough cooking entirely destroys this parasite and removes all danger in this regard from eating pork.

11. That the selection, inspection, and killing of American hogs and the subsequent handling and curing of the meat, are not surpassed, if at all

equaled, for care, precision, and understanding, by the packers or meat curers of any other country.

12. That, as a rule, the hogs selected for foreign trade are in all respects equal to the very best disposed of in our home market.

13. That the great exaggerations so industriously spread in regard to diseased pork have been aided by the different significations attached to the word "pig." In Europe it is used as the synonym of hog, whereas in America it means the young swine under six months and generally refers to those only a few weeks old. The number of "pigs" that die from various causes compared with the number of "hogs" that die is very large, and grossly erroneous conclusions are formed by confounding the two words.

German Emigration.—Consul Grinnell, under date of March 24, writes that appearances indicate that the emigration this year will be extraordinarily large. There are three steamers leaving this week, carrying more than 3,600, and the North German Lloyd Steamship Company are making every preparation for an enormous business throughout the year. The director-in-chief of this company is now quite positive that he will carry 25 per cent. more emigrants this year than last, and places the probable figures at 110,000 from this port alone.

Trade of Samoa.—Consul Dawson of Apia, under date of February 7, 1881, reports as follows to the department concerning the trade of Samoa, and its distribution among the several countries: During the year 1880, there arrived at this port from San Francisco, Cal., six American merchant vessels with a tonnage of 1,077.84 tons, and with cargoes invoiced at $55,121.38 and valued here at $73,495.84; there was also one United States man-of-war here with a tonnage of 2,400 tons.

During the same period there came to this port from Great Britain and her colonies 35 British merchant vessels with a tonnage of 4,345 tons, and inward cargoes valued at $200,000. Their outward cargoes were valued at $40,000. Their crews numbered 265 men. There were here also three British men-of-war with a tonnage of 4,970 tons and 30 guns.

During the same length of time there entered at this port 81 German merchant vessels with a tonnage of 13,917 tons, and imports valued at $140,000. The total imports by German merchants were valued at $240,000. Value of exports by German vessels, $220,000. Value of imports re-exported to other islands from this, about $125,000. Three German men-of-war also came here with a tonnage of 4,061 tons and 26 guns. There also came to this port one Norwegian and one Danish bark, tonnage respectively 359 and 447 tons; and one Hawaiian brig with a tonnage of 160 tons, and two cargoes of guano valued at $5,000.

Proposed duty on agricultural products in Austria-Hungary.—Consul-General Weaver, of Vienna, in a dispatch dated April 4, says:

On the 1st instant, in the lower house of the Austrian Reichsrath, Dr. Kronawetler, one of the advanced liberal members from this city, replying to a petition of the farmers society of Spielfield in Styria, which among other demands asked for an increase of the entry duties on field products, made the following remarks, translated literally from the report thereof given in the "*Neue freie Presse*" of April 2, which may be of interest, seeing that they substantiate the position taken in my dispatch, No. 119, under date of 16th ultimo, as to the probable causes that actuated the government to prohibit the importation of American swine products into Austria-Hungary. Dr. Kronawetler said:

"I find under the articles of the petition one that absolutely fails to please me [laughter], that is the second article, which reads 'Increase of entry duties on agricultural products.' From the tariff debate, which took place at the time, we know that precisely a large number of field products were then covered with an increase of entry duties. The agriculturalists have succeeded further, in that to the detriment of the large cities, under the pretext of the introduction of the cattle plague, the importation of cattle, and under the pretext of the trichinæ contained therein, the importation of American pork, have been prohibited. Yes, gentlemen, where shall this lead to? In Austria there are not only farmers in existence [laughter] but there are also inhabitants of cities, who are not there to become impoverished by the country people. [Bravo, bravo, from the extreme left.] Among the peasants are found large landowners, who own large flocks of sheep which they willingly sell to the inhabitants of the city at a high price. During the past century it has been esteemed the task and advantage of an administration if it should provide that the necessaries of life should become cheap. Now, suddenly, however, attention must be directed to the peasant population, among whom millionaires are found. (Cries of opposition and approbation.)

"The large landowners of Bohemia belong certainly to the peasant population. In the large cities you find more want and distress than in the rural districts, and the state representatives must likewise provide for cities. The abolition of the corn tax in England has always been pointed out as an acquisition, and shall the House of Representatives (*abgeordnetenhaus*) now recommend the restoration of measures long ago vanquished from a natural economical stand point? I am not here in a position to offer a motion, but perhaps my remarks are sufficient to bring it about that such matters may be judged not alone with regard to the farming classes, but with regard to the entire population, and to the residents of cities. [Bravo, bravo."]

The Suez Canal.—Consul-General Farman, of Cairo, Egypt, in his annual report for 1880, gives the following statistics concerning the traffic through the Suez Canal:

There is a continual and very large increase in the business of this canal. There were in 1880 2,026 vessels with a total tonnage of 4,349,738 tons, against 1,460 vessels with a tonnage of 2,152,655 tons in 1879.

The increase is principally in the number of English steamers. About four-fifths of all the vessels and the same proportion of the tonnage of all the business of the canal belongs to that country. The United States were represented in 1880, as in 1879, by a single war vessel. It will be noticed that of all the vessels that passed the canal in 1880 only five were sailing ships.

Seuz Canal traffic during the year 1880.

Flag.	No. of vessels.	Tonnage.
British	1,591	3,450,497.08
French	102	271,398.39
Dutch	70	174,485.51
Italian	52	104,566.28
Austrian	60	103,562.32
Spanish	34	85,335.97
German	38	52,553.11
Russian	22	45,900.72
Egyptian	16	13,965.99
Danish	10	13,679.71
Norwegian	7	11,073.96
Ottoman	10	9,856.21
Portuguese	6	5,252.91
Belgian	1	1,654.86
Liberian	2	1,357.44
American	1	1,225.01
Zanzibarian	1	1,124.27
Japanese	1	909.47
Swedish	1	361.38
Total (whereof 1,055 entered from Mediterranean and 971 from the Red Sea)	2,026	4,349,738.99

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Class and number of vessels.	
Merchant steamers, laden	1,524
Merchant steamers, in ballast	12
Mail steamers	361
Troop ships	54
Corvettes	11
Dispatch boats	20
Ironclads	4
Gunboats	9
Yachts	7
Frigate	1
Sloop	1
Tugboats	13
Pontoons	2
Dredgers	2
Sailing ships	5
Total	2,026

Number and description of persons passed through canal.	
British	19,570
French	7,492
Ottoman	5,203
Dutch	2,690
Spanish	2,020
Portuguese	1,445
Russian	905
German	163
Russian convicts	504
Pilgrims	19,762
Civil passengers	29,139
Total	88,893

The Carrying Trade of the United States.*—It is difficult of comprehension, even to the casual observer, why the American ship owners will not make an effort to secure at least a share of the carrying trade between Colombia and the United States. That a step by them in this direction would meet with great encouragement from the commencement I entertain not the least doubt. In previous reports I have made mention of the extraordinary increase in the trade of the United States with Colombia. Although the means of obtaining correct statistical data of this trade for the fiscal year ending 1880 are somewhat imperfect, it can be safely estimated at twelve millions of dollars. All of this vast trade between Colombia and the United States, amounting to a half a million packages annually is carried by British steamers, owned and controlled by a Liverpool house with a branch agency in New York. The history of the Atlas Steamship Company is remarkable. A few years ago starting out with a few old hulks of steamers, to-day the fleet of the company consists of fourteen fine iron steamers of considerable tonnage. The company has besides, so I am informed, a large sinking fund. In the past two years four large steamers have been added to the fleet. The success ot this company is a practical proof that a line of steamers plying between American and Colombian ports can be made a paying institution.

The Atlas line has to contend against the powerful steamship companies plying steamers between Europe and Colombian ports, heavily subsidized by their respective governments. The success of this company, in my opinion, has also demonstrated the fact, that the export trade of Colombia is destined in a short time to find its principal market in the United States, in spite of the concerted opposition of the European nations.

*Extract from the annual report of Consul Smith, of Carthagena, United States of Colombia.

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The Atlas Steamship Company being practically a monopoly is not slow to take advantage of it. The complaints by the merchants of Colombia and our country are very strong. I am assured by leading merchants, both in the United States and Colombia, that they stand ready to enter into contracts to give their shipments to any American line that will be established in opposition to the Atlas company.

American vs. British iron steamships.*—We have the advantage in everything except cheap labor to build iron steamships, and yet England is building more than three-fourths of all the iron steamships that are built in the world. It is estimated that we are now building about one-tenth of the iron steam vessels; that, of course, means principally for home navigation. The fact that 1,364 British vessels entered this port in 1879 with cargoes, and 63 without, and that 832 cleared in ballast, and 580 cleared with cargoes, is a positive proof that our government should, without a moment's delay, turn its attention to the encouragement of building iron steamships, if it is by subsidizing ship building and the sailing of the ships as is now proposed by the French Government, as the following arrivals of our vessels at Havre during 1879, shows our mercantile marine to be dwindling year by year.

In 1879 there arrived at this port 97 American sailing ships *and no American steamer*, which was a falling off from 113 in 1878 to 97 in 1879, and but three left this port other than in ballast. While we have this decrease upon the part of American shipping, there is an increase in English shipping of more than 10,000 tons for the same period.

Unless prompt and decisive action is taken on the part of Congress in regard to this most important feature of our national existence, we may waken up some bright morning and find that money expended at this time, when we have so much of it that it challenges our able financiers to know what to do with it—that government bonds are to be issued at 3 per cent.—to wish that we had merchant ships that we could turn into effective men-of-war at short notice; as iron steamers are employed now under foreign flags almost exclusively to freight the imports of the world into our country. It might be well for our *free-trade people* to remember that with no protection to American manufacturing these sailing ships would only be too glad to carry heavy manufactures to us, in the *place of mud and rubbish as ballast*, for which shipmasters pay from 75 cents to $1.50 per ton, thereby compelling the operators in most of our manufacturing establishments to *abandon their little cottage homes owned by themselves*, with ample supplies of food and clothing for their families, *and take to the garrets*, and the *scanty food in exchange*, to compete with the pauper mechanical labor of Europe.

The crop prospects in Morocco.—Consul Matthews, of Tangier, writes as follows to the Department, under date of February 28, 1881, concerning the crop prospects in Morocco:

Accounts from the western ports and from the interior of Morocco give a more cheering aspect to the gloomy forebodings as to the prospects of the coming harvests in Barbary. The long drought which has been experienced all over the country has been followed, I am glad to say, by copious rains, both at the sea-ports and in the interior. Matters were looking serious, causing the price of grain to rise rapidly; the native traders flocking to the sea-ports with their camels for the purpose of purchasing both maize and wheat there in stock at this time—a sure sign of the extent of the alarm that was experienced of a failure of the approaching harvest.

The rain had just come in time to save the crops of wheat and barley already sown in various provinces, but in the upper districts of Ducalla and Morocco none had as yet been sown, and the season being so far advanced it is probably now too late; an

* Extract from the annual report of Consul Bridgland, of Havre.

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abundant harvest consequently cannot be expected this year of either wheat or barley in these agricultural provinces, but beans, maize, and chick-peas might yield a large crop, as this is the sowing season.

To the northward, such as the districts and provinces of Tangier, Tetuan, and Larache, an abundance of rain has fallen almost unprecedented; rain has fallen at Tangier almost continuously since the 1st of last month, accompanied by strong southwest gales.

From August 20, 1880, to date, 33.08 inches of rain have been registered at Tangier by the pluviometer.

The price of wheat and barley, owing to the change in the interior, receded 20 per cent. in value at Casablanca, Mazagan, and Saffi, where holders are always inclined to sell.

The grain markets in the interior have declined in price generally for all kinds of cereals.

Trade of Guatemala.—The following interesting statistics concerning the trade of Guatamela were kindly forwarded to the Department of State by Mr. Martinez, consul of that country at New Orleans:

Census of Guatemala.—The last census of the 31st October, 1880, gave to the city of Guatemala and its surroundings 62,186 inhabitants, and to the whole country some 1,400,000 inhabitants; that of 1872 gave in all 1,197,054. Last year there were: Births, 48,927; deaths, 23,346; increase, 25,581.

New railroad.—The Government of Guatemala has granted to Larrondo Bros. the permission to build a railroad from Santo Tomas, a port on the Atlantic, to the city of Guatemala, a distance of some 240 miles, at a cost of some $14,000,000. As steamers are already running from New Orleans to Livingstone, near Santo Tomas, our supplies, to a great extent, must depend upon that enterprise, and it must necessarily contribute to the increase of trade of Guatemala with the United States.

Coffee.—The Guatemala coffee exported in 1880 amounted to 28,976,267 pounds, distributed as follows:

		Pounds.
England		5,907,600
France		5,083,884
Germany		5,822,202
New York	3,192,185	
San Francisco	8,143,421	
		11,335,606
Belize		246,835
South America		355,858
Belgium		171,380
Italy		40,380

The balance to other countries.

The amount of trade during the year 1880, as represented by the official statistics sent to the consuls of Guatemala abroad, was as follows:

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Total.
1879	$2,929,461 26	$4,605,528 77	$7,534,990 03
1880	3,035,536 85	4,423,445 57	7,458,982 42
Increase in 1880	106,075 59	.....	.....
Decrease in 1880	.....	182,083 20	76,007 61

Statement of trade by countries during 1879 and 1880.

Whence.	1879.		1880.	
	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.
England	$874,935 42	$1,295,043 59	$1,037,224 77	$834,905 90
France	487,664 18	583,867 18	535,683 94	727,330 91
Germany	392,129 97	733,164 14	424,937 00	859,615 88
California	478,744 82	1,012,125 95	502,955 26	1,255,896 79
New York	145,568 86	341,128 89	141,591 43	520,317 91
All other countries represented by	550,438,01	620,199 02	*393,144 45	225,378 18
Total	2,929,461 26	4,605,528 77	3,035,536 85	4,423,445 57

*New Orleans is included in this sum by $11,367.12, which will be largely increased henceforth, having since last year steamers running to the Atlantic port of Guatemala.

The imports from the United States during 1880 are stated as follows:

Whence.	Packages.	Value.
New York	16,056	$141,591 43
California	125,726	502,955 26
New Orleans	1,735	11,367 12
Total	143,517	656,913 81

In the extraordinary increase of imports into Guatemala it will be seen that England has taken the leading part; the increase for the United States being of no consequence.

The exports of Guatemala to the United States, according to the annual report of the Secretary of State for 1874, amounted to $1,090,226 35
In 1879 they amounted to 1,353,254 84
In 1880 they amounted to 1,776,214 70

In 1880 the total imports into Guatemala were as follows:

	Packages.	Hundreds, or cwt.	Value.
By the Pacific ports	232,954	261,694	$2,918,497 35
Atlantic ports	17,993	18,226	117,039 50
Total	250,947	279,920	3,035,536 85

The total exports were accomplished as follows:

	Pounds.
San José (Pacific)	15,079,189
Champerico (Pacific)	13,851,689
Izabal (Atlantic)	1,206,954
Total	30,128,832
Value	$4,425,336 57

German emigration to the United States.—Consul Grinnell writes from Bremen, under date of April 12, 1881, as follows:

The North German Lloyd Steamship Company, which last year transported about 80,000 emigrants from this port to the United States in safety, have this year (after transferring their best boats from the Brazilian trade) about twenty large steamers, most of which have been fitted up and enlarged expressly for the conveyance of steerage passengers to the United States.

The director in chief and the manager desire me to state that they will limit the number of adult passengers booked by each steamer to accord with the laws of Bremen and the United States, and (to prevent the possibility of delay, which would be most prejudicial to the emigrants always awaiting transportation here) will make an affidavit to this effect as to each outgoing steamer and attest it before the United States consul.

I will only add to this that the streets are crowded with these emigrants to such an extent that they cannot find lodging at night; that the police authorities have frequently to care for them, not because they have not money, but that all the lodging-houses are full; they cannot afford to wait here, and they crowd into the Lloyd Company's offices and kneel before and kiss the hands of the manager, praying with streaming eyes to be taken on board, and not be ruined by waiting here, or be forced to make the journey to England with their families.

The ventilation, the food, and the discipline on board these steamers leave nothing to be desired, and as there has never been any complaint lodged by the steerage or other passengers against this line, and as the steamers are under orders not to wait at New York or Baltimore a single day for cargo, their speedy return hither should, I think, in the interest of those anxious crowds, be facilitated in every proper way by our port officers.

Condition of affairs in Zacatecas, Mexico.—From a report, dated March 15, 1881, from Consul Kimball, the following extracts are printed:

Since my last report I have nothing of peculiar interest to communicate. Peace and tranquility prevail throughout the State, and there is no immediate prospect of

their being disturbed. The mines continue giving a very fine yield, the coinage for last year having amounted to $5,997,000 silver and $32,680 gold. Over $100,000 were, besides, exported in bullion.

The last harvest has been very abundant, and the price of maize and fodder being exceptionally low, the mines and "Haciendas de Ceneficio" will be able to work under very favorable circumstances.

The Sullivan Palmer Company (American) has purchased the railroad between this city and the town of Guadalupe, 6½ kilometers, for $191,884, and is now pushing it fast to the city of San Luis Potosi, 150 miles, expecting to have it completed in less than two years.

General Jesus Gonzales Ortega, the champion of reform against the clerical party from 1858 to 1860, and the defender of Puebla against the French in 1863, died at Saltillo on the 28th February. His remains were brought to this city on the 9th instant, where they received due military honors, and are now on their way to the city of Mexico.

The Norwegian Budget.—Consul Gade informs the Department that—

The annual session of the Norwegian Storthing was opened on the 1st instant, on behalf of the King, by the president of the council with a speech from the throne which contains nothing of special interest. The budget for the fiscal year July 1, 1881–July 1, 1882, laid before the assembly by the government, estimates the expenditures at 46,700,000 crowns, and the revenues at a similar amount. In order to balance the budget the government has been obliged again this year to propose a tax on income and fortune of 1,850,000 crowns, and an increased stamp duty of 450,000 crowns taxes which the last session of storthing avoided by greatly reducing the proposed budget. According to the government's proposition, the duties on imports and other smaller duties, computed to yield altogether 18,250,000 crowns, are not to be increased for the coming year. The duty on brandy distilled in the country is estimated to bring 3,400,000 crowns, and the malt tax 2,200,000 crowns.

The expenditures are the following:

	Crowns.
The civil list	448,242.00
The storthing	394,600.00
The council and government	1,161,052.00
Department of church and public instruction	4,066,637.47
Department of justice	4,142,645.54
Department of interior	5,243,898.70
Department finance and customs	9,524,953.00
Department war	7,633,000.00
Department navy and post	6,920,402.20
Diplomatic and consular expenses	476,900.00
Construction of railroads	6,502,800.00
Sundries	184,869.09
Total	46,700,000.00

Among the expenditures we remark 4,752,596 crowns for interest and 985,224 crowns for reduction of the public debt, which at the end of the year 1880 amounted to 104,396,000 crowns.

Navigation of the Pruth.—Consul-general Schuyler, of Bucarest, under date of March 3, 1881, writes:

According to the Roumanian delegate to the mixed commission of the Pruth, the navigation of that river in 1880 was as follows:

Entered the Pruth, all sailing vessels, 10 Austrian, 606 Greek, 119 Roumanian, 6 Russian, 2 Turkish, 1 Bulgarian; total, 744 ships, of 55,554 tons.

Left the Pruth, all sailing vessels, 11 Austrian, 618 Greek, 127 Roumanian, 4 Russian, 2 Turkish, 1 Bulgarian; total, 763 ships, of 57,649 tons.

The total importation through the mouth of the Pruth during 1880 consisted of 654,964 pounds of sundry merchandise, 39,816 pounds of salt, 155,554 pounds of flour, 28 English tons of coal, 110 tons of cereals for seed, and 647 pieces of timber.

The exportation by the mouth of the Pruth in 1880 was much greater. Maize holds the first rank and amounted to 2,256,455 bushels, wheat to 527,448, barley to 591,345, beans to 9,876, flaxseed to 4,732. The exportation of cheese was 524,815 pounds, wine 62,480 gallons, timber 950 pieces, and wood for fuel 72,219 cubic feet.

New Liberian ports.—Minister Resident Smyth, of Monrovia, advises the Department that after the often-expressed earnest wish of the non-

mercantile class and natives here, two ports of entry have been opened between Grand Bassa and Cape Palmas, viz, river Cesters and Sasstown.

These two points are important outlets to palm-oil and palm-kernel trade.

Without making any declaration as to any port of entry other than Cesters and Sasstown, the act opens all that portion of the coast, south, between Harper, Cape Palmas, and San Pedro, and restricts traders as above mentioned.

The wisdom of the legislature in this matter cannot be too highly commended, since by such legislation commerce must be increased and the needs of the native tribes on the coast of Liberia will be readily supplied, and this will tend to produce tranquillity in the stead of petty wars and disturbances.

The following is the act above referred to:

AN ACT to establish additional ports of entry in the several counties of this republic.

It is enacted by the senate and house of representatives of the Republic of Liberia in legislature assembled:

SECTION 1. That from and immediately after the passage of this act, foreign vessels shall be permitted to trade at any point above Robertsport, Grand Cape Mount, in Montserrado County, either as transient traders or by establishing factories among the natives of that locality. That before any foreigner shall have the privilege of so trading at any of the points above Robertsport, aforesaid, he shall be required to regularly enter his or their vessel at a port of entry in said county of Montserrado, and having manifested his intention of trading above Robertsport, shall give bond in security that all lawful duties upon goods landed will be promptly paid on his return to the port at which he shall have entered his vessel; said bond shall be double the amount of goods on board, as per his invoice, which invoice shall be presented to the collector by the master or supercargo when he enters his vessel. When said vessel or vessels shall have been entered, and before sailing for the points aforesaid, the collector of customs of the port shall place on board said vessel an honest person as inspector, who shall keep an accurate account of all goods landed and make a faithful and correct report to the collector on the return of said vessel. The said inspector shall be required to give a bond in the sum of two thousand dollars for the faithful discharge of his duty; and for any wilful or criminal neglect on his part to make a true and correct report to the collector he shall be deemed guilty of bribery, and shall, upon conviction before the court of quarter sessions and common pleas, be fined in a sum of not less than five hundred dollars and be imprisoned for not less than two years; that the said inspector shall be allowed two and a half per centum of the duties and no other compensation. The provisions in this section shall apply to the coast to the south of Harper in Maryland County.

SEC. 2. It is further enacted that River Cesters and Sasstown, between Grand Bassa and Sinoe and Maryland counties, are hereby declared to be trading ports, and all foreign vessels are permitted to call at the said ports under the following regulations: that is to say, that, should any foreigner or foreigners desire to call at either of the ports declared to be trading ports in this section, he shall signify to the collector of customs of the port of Grand Bassa, or the port of Greenville in the county of Sinoe, his or their intention of so doing, and the collector shall then demand that the invoice of said foreigner shall be presented to the said collector, who shall cause the same to be entered into the invoice book of his office, and the foreigner or foreigners are hereby required to enter into bond in double the amount of said invoice, that on his return to the said port of entry he will pay or cause to be paid the duties upon such goods as were sold at the new ports. And the collector of customs, after the filing of the bond, shall grant said foreigner or foreigners a permit to call in at any of the said trading ports. And he shall put on board of said vessel or vessels a person who shall be styled deputy collector, and who shall allow no goods to be landed without his knowledge, and no produce to be shipped on board unless the exact quantity be known to him. He shall keep a faithful and true account of all goods landed, and all produce shipped, and make a faithful report of the same to the collector of customs that granted the permit to call at the said new trading ports; any dereliction of duty on the part of the said deputy collector shall subject him to prosecution for bribery, and upon conviction shall suffer the pains and penalties thereof, according to the magni-

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tude of the offense; the said deputy collector shall receive three per cent. on all amounts of duties reported by him to the collector of customs who appointed him, as compensation for his services.

SEC. 3. All foreigners are hereby authorized to enter their vessels and open business houses at the said new ports for mercantile transaction upon the same conditions and manner that the same is done in or at any of the other ports of entry already established in this republic, excepting that all the trade or business done at the ports of entry above established shall be at the sole risk and adventure of the foreigner or foreigners so established.

SEC. 4. Be it further enacted, that whenever it shall be deemed necessary for the peace and quietude of the republic, the president be, and he is hereby, authorized to close up the ports hereby created by this act, any law to the contrary notwithstanding.

Approved January 14, 1881.

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COMMERCIAL RELATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES.

REPORTS

FROM THE

CONSULS OF THE UNITED STATES

ON THE

COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, ETC.,

OF THEIR

CONSULAR DISTRICTS.

No. 8.—June, 1881.

PUBLISHED BY THE DEPARTMENT OF STATE, ACCORDING TO ACT OF CONGRESS.

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CONSULAR REPORTS

ON

COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, ETC.

JUNE, 1881.

CONTINENT OF AFRICA.

COMMERCE OF MADAGASCAR AND THE SHARE OF THE UNITED STATES THEREIN.

REPORT BY CONSUL ROBINSON, OF TAMATAVE (REPORT WRITTEN AT ANTANANA RIVO, THE CAPITAL).

I inclose herewith a tabular statement of American trade at the port of Tamatave for the last half of the calendar year just passed, from the 1st of July to 31st of December, 1880. Although the total valuation of both imports and exports shows less than an equal proportion compared to the volume of our trade during the fiscal year last past, it by no means argues a falling off in this trade, as the difference will be, in all probability, balanced by the arrival of a large quantity of goods during the next six months (the last half of the present fiscal year). One cargo has already arrived this month, of course not included in the table.

The arrivals and departures of American vessels during the six months were four, including one carrying the British flag, which was really American, with borrowed flag and register, the owner of the vessel and the cargo, as well as the master, officers, crews and cargo being all American. I have explained this matter fully in a former report.

American trade is still so nearly restricted here to brown cottons and kerosene oil that the exceptions are not worth mentioning; and I must repeat what I have reported so many times, and written to so many merchants and manufacturers in response to their inquiries, *i. e.*, that it is not because there is not demand for other American productions, but simply because there are no facilities for getting other goods from the States.

I am being asked almost continually, and by nearly all classes, including mechanics, agriculturists, trades, and even the officers of the government up to the prime minister, if I can put them in the way to get such and such articles from America, and I am forced to reiterate the same reply to all: "Our merchants at present engaged in the Mada-

gascar trade do not wish to deal in other lines of goods than those they now handle; and they will not encumber their vessels with goods for other parties."

To mention all the commodities inquired for would be to make a list of nearly all the productions of the United States, including a large variety of patented articles and fancy notions. The wealthy hovas, especially, are inveterate purchasers of articles of curiosity or fancy.

Since my arrival at the capital I have learned something of the condition of trade here, and, although like Tamatave and most other places in the island, trade is very much cramped by lack of productions for export (this is the only limit to purchase of foreign goods by the natives), yet I find a much better opening for a variety of American productions at this point than I had expected from previous hearsay.

The stocks of brown cottons are kept up fully to the demands of the market, and even more. The purchase of rubber for exportation has fallen off materially since the fall in price in the United States; the natives come back to lower prices for their productions after a rise very reluctantly and slowly; and this reduction of the rubber trade is affecting to some extent the sale of our brown cottons at Tamatave. At other points the demand for these goods is evidently increasing. The demand at the capital for the supply of the district (Imerina) holds its own, if it is not on the increase; and now there is a demand springing up in the Betsileo province, in the interior and next south of Imerina, Fianarantsoa being its capital and next town in size to Antananarivo; estimated population of the whole province 1,500,000, being a larger population than in Imerina.

Hides, the principal product for export from Imerina, have until lately been cut up with the beef and used for food or thrown away (except what was needed for domestic uses) by the Betsileos. This was formerly the practice in all the interior provinces, and still is except in these two mentioned, and many hides are still thus wasted in Imerina. However, about 10,000 per month are now sent from Antananarivo to Tamatave for exportation, and the number will undoubtedly be increased as the people in the distant parts of the province begin to learn that the article has a market value. Whatever American cloth is sold in Betsileo at present is taken there by native traders, and all the hides bought there are sent to Antananarivo by said traders, whence they are sent to Tamatave. The journey from Antananarivo to Fianarantsoa, the capital of Betsileo, is longer than from Tamatave to Antananarivo. Now I have learned that there is a trail from Fianarantsoa direct to the small port of Mahela on the east coast, a point about 200 miles south of Tamatave. This trail passes through the northern Tanala country and forest. The trail is said to be equally as good as, if not better than, the trail from Tamatave to Antananarivo, and it is two or three days shorter; so that more than one half the distance of land carriage, of time, and of expense in transporting goods to and from Fianarantsoa would be saved by taking this route. The Bara province, lying next south of Betsileo, is also a large and populous district, and yet in a heathenish condition. The missionaries commenced work among them only some two or three years ago. But the natives already buy some cloth, and they, like all the people of all the other interior provinces, have cattle in great abundance. Their trade will increase from year to year, and its route will be through Fianarantsoa. In view of this large field for trade now opening, with the facilities for reaching the coast direct by a four days' journey in a palanquin, or ten to fifteen for bearers of heavy freight, it has struck me that at Fianarantsoa is a good point to establish another

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house for selling American brown cottons (if Americans are still determined to bring nothing else to Madagascar) and for buying products for exportation. Such establishment would necessitate the location of an agent at Mahela to receive the goods from the vessels and forward to the interior, and *vice versa*. I have just suggested the plan to the chiefs of the American houses at Tamatave, and if none of them see fit to fill the opening there will be a chance for a new American firm in the same line of trade.

As I reported in my No. 73, of the 15th instant, I suppose there is now a new American house at Morondava, west coast, and I am told there is a prospect that more will follow.

I have bought a sample of Madagascar silk cocoons, which I shall forward to the Department by first vessel sailing to New York or Boston. We wish to have them carefully inspected by our silk manufacturers, and the result reported to me for the information of our traders here, whether the silk is suitable or not for the United States market, and its market value; also any information that can be given by the manufacturers or other experts as to the best process for preparing the cocoons for market, such as the manner of keeping the worms while feeding, and the process for killing the insect in the cocoon is desired. The natives feed the worms on boards, cut out of doors, and destroy the insect by exposing the cocoon to the sun only. We desire to learn if there is a better process, and if the process affects the quality of the silk. I will send enough to supply the Department with samples to be retained there to exhibit to silk dealers, and will ask you to have the kindness to forward the balance to some silk manufacturer, and ask him for the information above specified, which he may either send through the Department or to me by mail direct. I ask this favor because I do not know the address of any of our silk manufacturers.

If this Madagascar silk proves suitable for our markets, it can be made the means of increasing our trade in this island considerably; for although the natives have never thought of cultivating the article for exportation, but only for home manufacture, they can produce large quantities, and cheap, and will if a market be offered. It seems that this matter has not been thought of by the foreign traders here.

W. W. ROBINSON,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Tamatave, Madagascar, January 31, 1881.

Statement showing the imports and exports between Tamatave and the United States for the six months ending December 31, 1880.

Articles.	Imports.		Exports.	
	Amount.	Value.	Amount.	Value.
Brown cotton.....bales..	2,099	$162,159 28	.....	.....
Flour.....barrels..	62	669 00	.....	.....
Shooks.....number..	735	558 00	.....	.....
Provisions and general merchandise.....	.....	526 30	.....	.....
Dry salted hides.....number..	.....	.....	19,521	$46,764 05
India-rubber.....pounds..	.....	.....	78,884	40,462 24
Coffee.....do....	.....	.....	32,074	5,054 80
Sugar.....do....	.....	.....	1,553	76 94
Total.....	.....	163,912 58	.....	92,358 03

TRADE OF MOROCCO WITH TIMBUCTOO AND THE SOUDAN, ACROSS THE GREAT DESERT.

REPORT BY CONSUL MATTHEWS, OF TANGIER.

THE GREAT CARAVANS, AND THE ROUTES ACROSS THE DESERT.

From time immemorial Timbuctoo has been considered as the great emporium of Central Africa, having carried on an extensive and lucrative trade with the Barbary and other North African maritime states, from Morocco to Egypt.

This trade (which of late years has somewhat declined) has been carried on by means of acabars, or accumulated caravans, which cross the Desert of Sahara between the months of September and April inclusive. The largest caravan which crosses the Desert is the one from Morocco, and proceeds from Tendief, on the confines of the Desert, once a year in the month of October, and consists of about ten thousand camels, of which only 20 per cent. carry merchandise. The remainder proceed from Taudeny in the center of the desert, where they load with salt.

Besides this, there are many other caravans composed of one or two hundred camels engaged in transporting the various articles of commerce. The effects which they take to Timbuctoo and the Soudan are various kinds of linens, cotton goods, white and blue sallampores, American cloth, and long cloth; sugar, tea, glasses, coral beads, amber beads, pearls, shells, silks, brass nails; silk, wool, and cotton manufactures of Fez and Morocco; nutmegs, cloves, and ginger; cowries and a considerable quantity of tobacco, beef, and salt.

The produce of Soudan, returned by these caravans for the above articles, consists in gold dust and gold trinkets from Wamgara and Jenne; ivory, ostrich feathers, gum Senegal, gum arabic, incenses, Soudan blankets, and slaves from Wamgara and Tloussa.

The value of each camel load is estimated at $250; consequently the value of the merchandise transported annually from Morocco by the great acabar may be estimated at $500,000, and that of the small caravans at $150,000, the total value of the merchandise conveyed to Timbuctoo amounting to $650,000. Of this sum 75 per cent. belongs to the camel drivers of Sus, who transport salt from Taudeny to Timbuctoo, and 70 per cent. of the camels are sold at this place, as the return goods being light, they require a much less number of camels to perform their traverse journey to Morocco. The great acabar is dissolved at Timbuctoo, the merchants returning in distinct groups and by various routes.

THE ROUTES ACROSS THE DESERT.

At present there are four frequented routes from Timbuctoo to Wadnun, which are: 1st, by Tisity and Wallatta; 2d, by Hammada, Tindief, Tzidy, Taudeny and Arawan; 3d, by the Boryle in the Ulad Buoxra, Awin, Tirkis, Aits, Uxa, and Wallatta; and, 4th, by Amayett, Tuky, Ulad, Ulad Tedlary, Ulad Dlima Tiris, Waddy, Yedama, and Wallatta. According to information from merchants and from Ali El Saharawi, the oldest desert guide, the itinerary in going with the desert camels is as follows:

	Days.
From Wadnun to Tiris	12
From Hammada to Yedama	4
From Yedama to Wallatta	4
From Wallatta to Timbuctoo	10
	30

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With the ordinary camels from sixty to ninety days are employed in crossing the desert.

The country extending from Wad Draa (the river Draa) to Laikia el Hamra is very fertile; from thence to Cape Bogador it is composed of sand hills, and from this cape it descends to an immense plain, called El Yuff, extending some five hundred miles, which, with desert camels, they traverse in twelve days; this plain is one hundred and twenty miles in width.

The boundaries of El Yuff are inhabited during four months of the year, in the spring, when the Arabs take their cattle to pasture towards the Gralotzy, on these grounds fertilized by the rains of winter. The amarand, or gum-arabic plant, is found on the plains of El Yuff.

The tribes which encamp on the El Yuff during the spring are those from Dibushaty Ulad-Ahal Atzmanu, Taganet, Ahal-Brick-allah, Zoowish, and from the west Ahal-el-Hodh, Ulad Dleim, Arusin, and Ulad Zawari.

The three great tribes of the desert are the Arab Hassan, El Zanaya, and El Lahina. The El Zanaya is a quiet and peaceable tribe. The El Lahina is a tribe of dreadful reputation, living off the plunder of the caravans, which they continually attack. The ostrich, antelope, and gazelle make their appearance on the plains of the Yuff after the accumulated rains of winter are absorbed; during this season the most valued ostrich feathers are gathered.

Fresh water is found near the surface of the ground from El Yuff to Yedama; from Yedama to Wallatta the water found is salt, and from Wallatta to Timbuctoo the water is again potable near the surface.

It is asserted by those who have crossed the desert during the last forty years, that the great fatigues and mortality of the transit have lately very much diminished. The Arabs attribute this improvement to the free use of tea, which of late has been introduced in all the caravans; they also maintain that the traveling conditions of the desert are much improved, the water in the skins lasting longer, as for some unknown reason the hot winds denominated "Shume" are not so violent as in former periods.

In 1815 a caravan proceeding from Timbuctoo to Tafilet encountered the terrible hot winds, the "shume," so violent that the water in their skins was exhaled, and being disappointed in not finding water at one of the usual watering places the whole of the persons belonging to it, 3,500 in number, besides 2,000 camels, perished of thirst. Calamities of this sort account for the vast quantities of human and other bones which are found mingled together in various parts of the desert. The intense heat of the sun, aided by the vehement and parching wind driving the loose sand along the boundless plains, gives to the desert the appearance of a sea, the drifting sands resembling the ocean waves; hence aptly denominated by the Arabs (El Bahar bella maa) a sea without water.

In their tiresome journey the acabars do not proceed in a direct line across the desert to their destination, but turn occasionally eastward or westward, according to the situation of certain fertile, inhabited, and cultivated spots interspersed in various parts of the Sahara, like islands in the ocean, called by the Arabs "Elwahs" (oases), which serve as watering places as well as to refresh and replenish the hardy and patient camel. The acabars rest on these oases several days.

The Acabars cross the desert under convoy, the same being two or more Arabs belonging to the tribe through whose territory the caravan passes. Thus, in passing the territory of Ulad-el-Hodh Abbusebah, they are accompanied by two Sebayhies, or people of that country, who,

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on reaching the confines of the territory of Ulad Dleim, receive a remuneration and return, delivering them to the protection of two chiefs of Ulad Dleim, these again conducting them to the confines of the territory of the Moroffra Arabs, to whose care they deliver them, and so on till they reach Timbuctoo. Any assault made against the Acabars during this journey, while in charge of the stata (convoy) aforesaid, is considered an insult to the whole clan to which the stata belongs, and for which they never fail to take ample revenge.

Besides these grand accumulated caravans, there are other flying caravans, which cross the desert in much less time; they take with them a sufficient number of (Niag) female camels to supply them with food, they living altogether on the milk of that animal.

It is not ascertained when the communication between Barbary and Soudan was first opened, yet it is certain that the enterprising expedition of Muley Arsheede, Emperor of Morocco in 1670, encouraged the exchange of commodities, and caused the establishment of the company of Morocco merchants from Fez, as well as that of their factory at Timbuctoo, which continued to increase and flourish until quite recently, when it declined.

Sid Ali, on his flight from Muley Arsheede, after obtaining permission from the negro king of Bambara, settled with his numerous followers at Timbuctoo, and established a Moorish garrison, which was kept up until the death of Muley Arsheede, when he returned to Barbary. Muley Ismael, Emperor of Morocco, established his power in Timbuctoo and met with no opposition in putting that place under contribution. Having sent fresh troops to occupy the Moorish garrison there, the inhabitants were glad to make a contribution, in exchange for the protection and power which it afforded them; for previous to this they had been subject to continual depredations from the Arabs of the adjacent country, to whom they paid tribute as a security to their caravans, which were constantly passing through the country of these Arabs, who are of the race of Brabeeshe.

In the year 1727 Muley Ismael died. After his decease the tribute was not regularly transmitted, and his successors having no means of exacting it, it was entirely discontinued to this day. The Moorish garrison, too, intermarrying with the natives, and dispersing themselves about the vicinage, has given to the latter that tincture of Moslem manners, which they are known to possess, their descendants forming at this period a considerable portion of the population of Timbuctoo.

THE CITY OF TIMBUCTOO.

The city of Timbuctoo (at present in much decline and less populous than formerly) is situated on a plain surrounded by sandy eminences, about twelve miles north of the Nile el Abeeda (the river Niger), and three days' journey from the confines of the Sahara. The city is about twelve miles in circumference, but without walls.

The town of Kabra, situated on the banks of the river, was its great commercial depot or port. By means of a water-carriage east and west of Kabra, great facility is given to the trade of Timbuctoo, from whence the various articles of European as well as Barbary manufactures brought by the Acabars from the north of Africa (now in less quantities than before), are distributed to the different kingdoms and states of Soudan and the south. This great mart is resorted to by all nations of Central Africa, whither they bring the various products of their

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respective countries to barter for the European and Barbary manufactures.

The main circulating medium at Timbuctoo is (tibber) gold dust. The houses of Timbuctoo have for the most part no upper apartments; they are rather spacious and of a square form, with openings on the center, toward which the doors open. They have no windows, but the doors are lofty. Contiguous to the entrance door is a building, consisting of two rooms, called a Duaria, in which visitors are received and entertained, so that they see nothing of the women, the men being excessively jealous of their wives.

The kings, since the death of Muley Ismael, are the sovereigns of Bambara. The name of the present potentate is Said Ben Woolr; he is black, and a native of Jenne, his usual place of residence, although he has three palaces in Timbuctoo.

Many of the civil appointments at Timbuctoo, since the decline of the authority of the Emperor of Morocco, have been filled by Moors of Maroquin origin; but the military appointments have been entirely among negroes of Bambara. The inhabitants are also for the most part negroes, possessing much of the Arab hospitality, and pride themselves in being attentive to strangers.

The various costumes exhibited in the market places and streets indicate the variety and extent of the commercial intercourse with the different nations of Central Africa.

The religious toleration in this country is complete; every one is allowed to worship without restraint according to the religion of his father.

The police of this extraordinary place is extolled as surpassing anything of the kind in North Africa; robberies and house-breaking are unknown.

The government of the city is intrusted to a divan of twelve alemma, or men learned in the Koran, and an umpire, who retain their appointments, which they receive from the King of Bambara, three years.

The civil jurisprudence is directed by a cadi, who decides all judicial proceedings according to the laws of the Koran, and has twelve talebs or attorneys in attendance.

Until the year 1804 no Jews were permitted to enter the town, owing to the extreme jealousy of the individuals of the Moorish factory, whose avarice induced them to exclude every person from sharing their emoluments.

The climate of Timbuctoo is much extolled as being salubrious and extremely invigorating. Men at the age of eighteen have their wives and concubines. It is a disgrace for a man who has reached the age of puberty to be unmarried.

The accommodation for travelers at Timbuctoo is very simple; camels, horses, drivers, and merchants rendezvous at a large house having an open space in the middle, round which are built rooms sufficiently large for a bed and low table. These inns are called Fondaks, and each merchant hires a room or more until he has exchanged his merchandise for Soudanic produce, which he endeavors to accomplish by autumn, in order to be ready for the Acabars, either to proceed to Morocco, Cairo, Jeddah, or elsewhere.

The soil about Timbuctoo is generally fertile, and near the river produces rice, millet, Indian corn, and other grain; wheat and barley grow on the plains. Coffee grows wild here, as does also indigo, which latter they use in their various cotton manufactures. Honey and wax are

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abundant, but neither are transported across the desert; the natives use the former for food and the latter for candles.

There is a supply of fish from the river about Kabra.

The gold mines, which lie south of the river, belong to the King, and are worked by Bambareen negroes. These mines are reported to be extremely rich.

In a country like this, as the Africans are ignorant of geography or any other science, it is difficult to attempt to give the exact geographical bearing and distance of places from Timbuctoo; but from the several accounts at different times received from respectable people who have resided at Timbuctoo and traveled across Africa, according to their journeys, at the usual rate of 3½ miles per hour, it appears to be situated 1,500 miles south-southeast of Fez, 1,100 miles about south-southeast of Akka, Yatta, and Wadnun, 1,300 miles, in nearly the same direction from Morocco, 1,300 miles from Tafilet, 230 miles eastward of the city of Jenne, and 1,000 miles east of Houssa.

Dr. Lenz, the distinguished German traveler, who is now at Tangier, on his return from his remarkable journey from Morocco to Timbuctoo and Senegal, obtained, through his minister at this place, letters of recommendation from the Emperor of Morocco, which were of the greatest service to him on his perilous journey, which he undertook under the patronage of the Berlin societies.

Starting from Tetuan, he visited the cities of Fez, Mequinez, and other cities of Morocco. He crossed the desert of Sahara in forty-three days with seven companions, and reached Timbuctoo, which place he reports as having lost some of its importance as a market, and from his hurried observation the place appeared thinly peopled, and many of its houses in ruins.

Dr. Lenz took three months to reach St. Louis Senegal. Toward the end of his fatiguing journey he was menaced by one of the tribes, but was saved by his tact. He found in several oases points which may be of great utility for the Sahara Railway, which French expeditions are preparing by military surveys from Senegal and Algeria simultaneously. Mr. Gallieni has been exploring the basin of the Senegal from the sea coast of Sigon.

Mr. Gallieni reports that a fresh map of the country lying between the Senegal and the Niger will have to be drawn, as the one now in use is altogether misleading.

The water-shed of the two basins is near Bamakoo, only a few miles from the Niger, and at some points the line of separation is so vague that during the rainy season the water sometimes drains into the Senegal, and at other times into the Niger; this being the reason why the natives maintain that the two rivers are connected during the winter.

As the basin of the Niger is only a few miles wide, the tributary streams indicated on the maps cannot empty into that river; all of them finding their way into the Senegal.

Mr. Gallieni and his companions have obtained some information concerning the Bouré, which has long enjoyed the reputation of possessing great mineral wealth; and it appears that this district comprises ten villages, with 6,000 inhabitants, 1,000 of whom are occupied in gold mining. The values of the quantity extracted in their primitive way, in a year, being about $150,000. Although the mission was attacked at Dio, Mr. Gallieni reports very favorably as to the attitude of the natives through whose territory the railway from the Senegal is intended to run, and says they are well disposed towards France.

From the mountain chain of Morocco to Timbuctoo the Desert of

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Sahara forms one vast horizontal plateau, and is not broken up into depressions of ground, as was generally, believed; this plateau continuing beyond Timbuctoo, and skirting the left bank of the Niger.

On account of Morocco the Spaniards watch anxiously the progress of the French in the Sahara.

FELIX A. MATHEWS,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Tangier, March 1, 1881.

CUSTOMS TARIFF OF LOANDA, BENGUELLA, AND MOSSAMEDES.

I have the honor to hand the Department a copy of the custom-house tariff for Loanda, Benguella, and Mossamedes, which has lately come into force; and also a complete translation of the same, as already mentioned in my dispatch, No. 57, of 14th September, 1880, and which I feel certain may prove to be useful to any merchants and manufacturers anxious to cultivate this trade.

ROBT. S. NEWTON,
United States Vice-Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
St. Paul de Loanda, December 31, 1880.

CUSTOM-HOUSE TARIFF FOR LOANDA, BENGUELLA, AND MOSSAMEDES.

[Translation.]

ARTICLE 1. All goods and merchandise imported from foreign ports into the custom-houses of Loanda, Benguella, and Mossamedes will pay the duties as established in Tables A and B. Goods exported from said custom-houses will pay duties as in Table C.

ARTICLE 2. All goods and merchandise manufactured in the kingdom [Portugal] or in the adjacent islands will pay when imported from there to the custom-houses referred to in article 1, 30 per cent. of the duties as established in the Tables A and B.

ARTICLE 3. Goods and merchandise re-exported from Portugal or adjacent islands to the custom-houses mentioned in article 1 will pay 70 per cent. of the duties as established in Tables A and B.

ARTICLE 4. In order that goods and merchandise to which articles 2 and 3 refer can avail of the differential duties there established, they must be accompanied with the dispatches of the custom-house from whence they were exported or re-exported.

ARTICLE 5. It is permitted the re-exportation of goods from the custom-house of Loanda paying an ad valorem duty of 2 per cent., without regard to the nationality of the exporting vessel.

ARTICLE 6. The transit of goods and merchandise is permitted in Franquia from one to another custom-house in the province, the necessary duty being paid according to the usage of the custom-house where the goods are dispatched.

ARTICLE 7. Goods or merchandise, provincial or naturalized, having paid import duties according to article 1, are allowed free transit throughout the province.

ARTICLE 8. Articles produced by the industry of the province, being exported abroad, will be treated as foreign should they return to the province from a foreign port, but national should they come from a Portuguese port, always being accompanied with the necessary documents to prove the same.

ARTICLE 9. Colonial produce from the ports to the north of Loanda is free of import duty in the custom-houses referred to in article 1.

ARTICLE 10. Goods and merchandise re-exported from the deposits of other colonial or provincial custom-houses mentioned in article 1 will be entitled to benefit by the rules in articles Nos. 2 and 3, according to where they come from, and those taken out for consumption or naturalized in the same provinces, except Guiné, will enjoy the favor established by article No. 2.

ARTICLE 11. Ad valorem duties will be calculated according to the value the goods may have in the market of the province.

1st. The importers or exporters when they wish to dispatch will sign a declaration with a description and value of said goods, in the sum which they may consider convenient. The declaration must include all necessary information for the levying of duties.

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2d. If the custom-house judge the declared value to be sufficient, they will have the right to retain the goods, paying to the importer or exporter within the space of ten days from date of declaration 10 per cent. in addition to the value declared.

3d. When, however, the custom-house do not find it convenient to have recourse to their rights, they can proceed to the valuation of the goods by experts, who will be named, one by the director of the custom-house, the other by the declarer; and in the event of their not being able to agree, the director of the custom-house will name a third expert, from whose decision there will be no further appeal on either side.

4th. If on examination of the experts they should show that the value of the merchandise does not exceed 10 per cent. over what had been declared, the custom-house can in their choice exercise their right or have the duties paid according to the value determined by the experts.

5th. This duty will be increased 50 per cent. if the valuation of the experts should be over 15 per cent. of the value declared.

6th. The expenses of the examination of the experts will be paid by the declarer, if the value determined on by the decision of the arbitrators should exceed 10 per cent. of the declared value; if the contrary, they will be paid by the custom-house.

ARTICLE 12. All baggage is duty free; by baggage is understood linen in use, personal and other objects, such as instruments for personal use, showing his respective profession. For the purpose of dispatch, all will enter into the custom-house, accompanied with a declaration signed by the captain of the vessel with description of the number of packages, and the name of the person to whom they belong. The director of the custom-house will immediately, on being requested, send to examine the baggage, and finding it as declared will cause it to be delivered to the owners free of any duty.

ARTICLE 13. Merchandise stored in the custom-house will pay, besides the respective duties at the end of six months from entrance, a storage rent each month equal to 50 reis per 100 kilos when dry goods, and 20 reis per decalitro when in liquid.

The greatest time allowed for the deposit of cargo will be one year, to be counted from date of entry. At the end of this time the goods will be sold by public auction, notice being given thirty days previously; it is, however, allowed to the owners or their representatives to retire the goods prepaying the respective duties and storage rent.

From the result of the sale must be paid the expenses of the auction, and from the same there must be discounted the duties and storage rent, entering them as received, and passing the remaining credit to the deposit of those interested.

ARTICLE 14. The custom-houses will not be responsible for damage of goods that may be in their deposits, when such damage is the result of unforeseen circumstances or unpreventible misfortune, and not from the negligence of any responsible person, nor will compensation in the duties be allowed for any difference in the equality of the goods to be dispatched, except in the case referred to in the following article.

ARTICLE 15. When goods appear in the custom-house with sea damage exceeding 3 per cent. of the original value, not of the object damaged, but over all the package of which it forms part, if owners or receivers should require it a proportional abatement will be made in the duties according to the difference between the original value and present state resulting from damage. Food, drugs, and medicines having sea damage which exceeds 3 per cent. will not be comprehended in this article, but must be immediately destroyed when the owners or receivers of the goods do not protest against this act, but protesting against it they can only be destroyed according to the decisions of the surveyors, in which case the board of health of the province will be duly represented.

ARTICLE 16. In order to determine the abatement to be made on damaged goods, the chief of the custom-house will name as valuator one of the employés of the said custom-house, and the owner or consignee will name another valuator, who will declare the cause of damage, and the difference between the value of the goods in their present state and what they ought to have been before being damaged, and according to this declaration the papers can be altered by the competent clerk and duties paid on the desired abatement.

In case the valuators should not agree, the director of the custom-house will name a third valuator, who will decide without further appeal for one of the sides.

ARTICLE 17. Vessels of any nation exclusively employed in fishing on the high sea are permitted to deposit in the custom-houses, of which article No. 1 first treats, unnecessary gear or other objects, paying on taking out same a duty of 2 per cent. ad valorem for each six months, and the deposit referred to for any time exceeding one year is not permitted without a new license.

1. For the collection of this duty, it not having been paid in due time, proceedings will be taken in terms marked 1 and 2 in article 13.

ARTICLE 18. All goods will pay duties due by weight, admitting the tare marked in Table D.

1. It shall be allowed to parties clearing goods to weigh them separate from the

tares in which they come, except woolen and silk goods, which shall always be weighed separately, and will pay duties on their exact weight. Common cotton goods for the use of the interior of the province, such as chilloes, handkerchiefs, pannos do costa, stripes, unbleached cotton goods, satin stripes, and blue baft will be weighed in the custom-houses with their respective tares, being verified by an opening made in the covers of the bales, unless the verificador deems it necessary to have them opened.

2. When, however, the tares in which the goods come are objects that can be sold in the market, these tares shall pay their respective duties; casks, pipes, barrels, cases, bale covers, bags, and such others are excepted.

ARTICLE 19. Goods once in the possession of the custom-house cannot be delivered without being duly dispatched and without payment of the respective duties. Are excepted for the convenience of the custom-houses and of the merchants, rum, wine, vinegar, inflammable matter, salt, flour, tiles, lime, masonry, tar, wood, fruits, and vegetables. These goods, after being verified on the wharf by two employés, can be delivered to the owners with a clearance from the director of the custom-house.

Before taking charge of the goods they must be entered into a book kept for this purpose, and a bond signed by the two employés and by the receiver, in which bond will be mentioned a declaration of their weight, marks, and description, and, at the same time, should be mentioned the amount of their respective duties and the condition that they will be paid within eight days from date.

ARTICLE 20. In every dispatch it shall be specified the description of the goods; the employés of the custom house shall allow any substitutions, arbitrary denominations or compensations, even if considered to the benefit of the revenue.

ARTICLE 21. There shall be a permanent commission of custom-house tariffs to be consulted about any alteration that it may be necessary to be made for the future in the tariff now put in execution, and about any doubts or controversies that may occur in its execution.

1. The decisions of this committee will be submitted to the government of the province, whose duty it is to decide, remaining, nevertheless, dependent on the approval of the government in the metropolis, that may have reference to any alterations in the tariff.

ARTICLE 22. The custom-house will collect the fees mentioned in the Table E for the clearance of craft, and for services described in said table.

ARTICLE 23. The owners or parties clearing goods, and also the respective verificadores, must give a clear description in the tickets of all goods dispatched, to serve as a basis for organizing the statistics according to the adjoining forms Nos. 1 to 5.

ARTICLE 24. Smuggling will be punished with the loss of the goods smuggled, and with a fine not to exceed the value of said goods, nor inferior to 25 per cent. of their value.

ARTICLE 25. The owner, receiver, or, in their place, the conductor, of smuggled goods is liable to a fine at least double the duties on the goods, and at most to five times the amount of duties, provided it does not exceed double the value of the goods smuggled.

1. When, however, the goods are found in false bottoms, or in any other place of concealment, such as wrapped up in other goods subject to less duty, or free of them, or taken on shore after having been taken out of the custom-house with a dispatch for transit or for re-exportation, the fine shall be equal to the value of the goods smuggled, besides five times the duties for the maximum, provided it does not exceed the value of said goods, and for the minimum with double the duties.

ARTICLE 26. The transgressors of regulations that will not produce a loss of duty to the government, will be punished with a fine from 12,000 to 200,000 reis, according to the extenuating or aggravating circumstances that may accompany them.

ARTICLE 27. In case of embezzlement of duties, the goods as well as the respective conveyances will be apprehended, as caution to the payment of the fine when it is not immediately paid, or at the moment deposited.

ARTICLE 28. The owners of the goods or of the conveyances will be answerable for the acts of their clerks, conductors, agents, in everything with respect to the payment of the duties and infractions of regulations.

ARTICLE 29. As form of process it shall be observed what is determined by the law in vigor; the judgment, however, belonging to the director of the custom-house, with an appellation to the superior authority of the public revenues.

ARTICLE 30. The fine established for the embezzlement of duties will have application to the captains of ships that will furnish incorrect manifests, and lists of extras being considered as smuggled; all goods that may be found less or above, after the ship has been completely unloaded, and that the cargo landed has been compared with the manifest. False declarations that may occasion a loss to the public revenue shall be punished with the fine applied to the embezzlement of duties.

ARTICLE 31. Produce, subject to export duty, shipped without dispatch or found on board, the quantity being above the declaration in the dispatch, shall also be considered as an embezzlement of duties.

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ARTICLE 32. All explosive substances or subject to catch fire found in packages entered in the custom-house, shall be seized if such packages do not externally contain a declaration to that effect, besides such declaration being made in the act of entry in the custom-house. The owners, or whoever represents them, are besides liable for the damages that may occur owing to this omission.

ARTICLE 33. All additional duties ad valorem now existing in the custom-houses of Loanda, Benguella, and Mossamedes are abolished.

1. Of the general receipt of the said custom-houses 20 per cent. of the duties recovered will be applied to public works.

ARTICLE 34. It is prohibited and shall be punished with the punishment applied to extortioners, any demand for duties not specified in this law.

Minister of Marine at home and abroad, 1st July 1880.

ANSELMO JOSÉ BRAAMCAMP.

Approved.

FRANCISCO JOAQM. DA COSTA E SILVA,
General Director.

TABLE A.

Duties on imports.

Description.		Reis.	Dollars.
1. Cotton goods:			
Unbleached, smooth, and twilled fabrics; canvas	kilo	150	$0.15
Bleached fabric of any denomination	do	250	.25
Colored fabric in thread stamped, satin stripes, prints, stripes, handkerchiefs, velvets, baize, and other qualities not specified	kilo	400	.40
2. Rice	do	15	.01½
3. Sugar—refined of any quality; not refined of any color or quality	do	20	.02
4 Olive oil and other qualities used for food	decal	500	.50
5. Liquids:			
Rum and simple alcohol per decalitre of pure alcohol	decal	1,000	1.08
Wine and vinegar in casks	do	500	.49
Wine and vinegar in bottles	do	800	.80
Fermented or distilled	do	1,000	1.08
Champagne	do	2,000	2.16
6. Tea of all qualities	kilo	500	.50
7. Trade guns (Kanda or Lazarino)	each	1,000	1.08
Guns of any other system	do	3,000	3.24
8. Flour	kilo	10	.01
9. Woolens:			
Fabric of any color and quality as cloth cashmere shawls and yarn, or other qualities not specified	kilo	700	.70
Baizes and blankets	do	400	.40
10. Flax:			
Cordage and canvas for sails	kilo	100	.10
Unbleached packing canvas Kempen cloths and similar cloths of any other quality not mentioned	kilo	500	.50
11. Butter	do	150	.15
12. Molasses	decal	200	.20
13. Metals:			
Precious metals manufactured			
Copper, brass, and other metals not precious and in bulk manufactured	kilo	500	.50
Forged iron—bar and sheet and nails	do	5	.00½
Zinc, lead, and steel	do	10	.01
Iron (cast, lead, and steel) manufactured	do	100	.10
14. Petroleum	do	20	.02
15. Gunpowder	do	200	.20
16. Soap	do	30	.03
17. Salt	decal	80	.08
18. Silk:			
Silk fabrics	kilo	2,500	2.90
Silk mixed fabrics	do	1,500	1.58
19. Tobacco:			
In leaf, twist, and cake	do	200	.20
Cigars	do	1,500	1.58
Manufactured in any form	do	1,000	1.08
20. Candles—wax and stearine	do	70	.07
21. Sundry objects, such as needles, toys, cigar holders, twine manufactured, India rubber, false jewelry, musical boxes, imitation coral beads of all kinds, hats, umbrellas, cutlery, pipes, crystals, boots, looking-glasses, linen thread, as cordions,†			
21. All kinds of crockery ware, cotton thread, works in bone, china ware, paper, perfumery, matches, hardware and glassware †			
All else not specified ‡			

Made up fabrics will pay the tariff duty, plus 50 per cent.

* Ad valorem, 10 per cent. † Ad valorem, 25 per cent. ‡ Ad valorem, 20 per cent.

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TABLE B.

Staves for casks	Free of duty.
Provincial rum	Do.
Twisted yarns for warping	Do.
Sugar produced in the province	Do.
Carts for agriculture, and carriage of goods, complete or in separate pieces	Do.
Coal	Do.
Portuguese money imported from Portuguese ports	Do.
Foreign money, in gold or silver, imported from foreign ports	Do.
Vessels of any size or description	Do.
Twine for nets	Do.
Vegetables of any quality, mandioca, and others	Do.
Machines for agriculture and any industry, and in separate pieces	Do.
Pipes, &c., in shooks	Do.
Bags	Do.
Salt of the province	Do.
PROHIBITED.	
Cannons are prohibited from entering the province excepting for the use of the government; also money (Portuguese silver and copper) coming from foreign ports; and also foreign products coming under the style of Portuguese production.	

TABLE C.

EXPORTATION.

Fish-oils, bullocks, rubber, wax, palm kernels, coffee, skins, hides, gum, ivory, dry or salt fish, tobacco and orchilla weed, vegetable oils, oily seeds.	For foreign ports, 5 per cent. ad valorem; for Portuguese ports, 3 per cent. ad valorem.
All other products not specified	Free of duty.

TABLE D.

Table of tares to be reduced from the gross weight of goods subject to fixed duties.

Goods.	Nature of packages.	Tares.
		Per ct.
Sugar	Barrels, kegs, and boxes	15
	Bags	2
Tea	Plain boxes	3
	Double boxes and staved	40
Liquids	Proper liquid casks	18
	Barrels	20
	Kegs containing molasses	10
Butter	Barrels	20
	Pots or jars	30
Fabrics	Bales with hoops	6
	Bales without hoops	3
	Barrels, kegs, and boxes	2
	Any other goods when not weighed without the tares, viz: baskets, crates, tubs, buckets, tins, wicker baskets, grades of wood.	6
	Packages having covers of oil cloth in addition to the respective cover	2
Vases or bottles	Clay	25
	Glass	10

TABLE E.

Dues charged in the custom-houses of Loanda, Benguella, and Mossamedes.

Description.	Reis.
1. For every service done respecting any trading vessel or coaster from the time that the fiscal employé goes on board until the time he leaves, not included in the following articles, and including the legislation of the manifest (*a*)	2,400
2. Special licenses	200
3. Signatures to licenses	100
4. Charges due to employés for assisting in cases of shipwreck inside the harbor (*b*)	1,000
5. The same on the coast	2,000
6. Charges due to custom-house guards assisting in cases of shipwreck inside the harbor (*b*)	3,000
7. The same on the coast (*c*)	600
8. Surveys, or any other service after regular official hours (*i. e.*, before 9 a. m. and after 3 p. m. or on Sundays or holidays), when these services are requested by the parties interested, and rendered outside the custom-house limit (*b*)	1,000
9. Searching books or documents of the custom house more than one year back when the interested party does not state the month	500
10. For any two-page certificates taken from books already finished	300
11. For every page beyond the two named	100
12. Certificates of dispatches, passes, or of any other documents	200
13. Certificates of documents written in foreign language	400
14. Dues to the guards' fund for every lighter or boat that may take a guard accompanying merchandise that has been landed, re-exported or dispatched in transit, if this merchandise is subject to duties (*c*)	250
15. Services of custom-house guards per day on board any ship (*c*)	400
16. Surveys to prove the seaworthiness or unseaworthiness of any ship according to the decree of August 11, 1852	4,500
17. Fees of inquiries of seizures made or transgressions against auction rules are dues applicable in the judicial table that is in vogue in the province in such cases, the direct or and clerk acting as judges, the crier and guards acting as servers of summonses. These fees mentioned go into the common fund of the internal and external custom-house employés.	

(*a*) These fees are not received from vessels that do not do any commercial business.
(*b*) These dues do not go into the common fund, but are received by the employés executing the work.
(*c*) These fees go into the guards' common fund, and are received by the chief guard under the following circumstances:
1. Ten days after the ship's arrival.
2. When guards serve as health officers on board ships in quarantine.
3. When remaining on board after the ship's discharge receiving provisions that are subject to duties.
4. When on board while the ship is undergoing repairs with whole or part of cargo still on board.
5. When leave is asked to load and discharge at the same time.
6. When any vessel loads, unloads, transfers cargo, or is out of the proper anchoring-ground where vessels are subject to custom-house supervision; when there are no custom-house guards, soldiers will be asked for from the proper authorities, and these, besides their pay, will get 200 reis (or 20 cents), as gratification paid by the treasury. When it does not come under the provisions of any of the mentioned numbers, or else paid by the guards' fund in the contrary case; in that case the difference between the quantity of 200 reis paid to the soldiers, and 400 reis (or 40 cents) to the ship, will remain in the guards' fund.

INTRODUCTION OF AMERICAN GOODS INTO TUNIS.

REPORT BY CONSUL FISH.

During the current quarter I have visited Susa, Monaster, Melidia, Sfax, Gabes, and Djerbah, all seaport towns of considerable importance between Goletta and Tripoli, and within the jurisdiction of the consulate. I went as far South as Tripoli where I met Consul Jones, who gave me some valuable information concerning American interests in that country. I wished to be able to report to the State Department, from personal association with leading commercial men in the business centers of the regency, such facts as would bear upon the subject of introducing American trade into the ports of North Africa. You will

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find herewith inclosed, No. 1, my observations on the subject, and No. 2, account of vessels engaged in the trade for A. D. 1880, all of which is respectfully submitted to the Department.

GEO. W. FISH,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Tunis, March 25, 1881.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE PROSPECT OF INTRODUCING AMERICAN GOODS INTO THE REGENCY OF TUNIS.

During the quarter that will close on the 31st of March, 1881, I have visited all the seaport towns of this regency, between Goletta and the frontiers of Tripoli; have taken notes of the condition of trade, and have talked freely and fully with leading merchants, commercial men, and shippers, concerning the feasibility of introducing American goods into the market. I learn that, prior to A. D. 1860, United States shippers and merchants were successful competitors for a fair proportion of the carrying trade and merchandising of this country. During the war of the rebellion Southern privateers in the Straits of Gibraltar, sustained, encouraged, and supported by the British Navy and officials, burned up and absolutely swept from the sea our Mediterranean merchant navy. It seems strange, but it is nevertheless true, and no less mortifying than true, that since the close of the war our people seem to have made little or no effort to regain the commercial prestige which was so unfairly taken from them. I send inclosed herewith, No. 2, a list of merchant vessels engaged in carrying merchandise to and from the ports of Tunis for the year 1880, by which it appears that of the 1,961 vessels, with an aggregate tonnage of 505,315 tons, *not one* carried the United States flag, nor was there any American commercial interest represented, and the statement would apply with equal truth and force to any one or all of the last twelve or fifteen years. The flag of the United States of America, as an emblem of commerce, and on an American merchant ship, is absolutely unknown in the ports of Tunis to the present generation of business men. The few American goods that find their way to this market are shipped first to some European port, and from thence transshipped to Tunis in French or Italian vessels. A good deal of American petroleum is finding its way to this market, and the trade in this article is likely to become much more important in the near future, if it is wisely managed. I have found not only a willingness but a desire to encourage the introduction of our style of goods, but, as there is no direct communication by ships between the ports of Tunis and those of the United States, merchants are unwilling to run the risk of competing with European goods that now hold the market. Could a direct line of American steamers be established between the United States and the ports of Tunis, it is believed that American cotton goods, and other manufactures, could be profitably introduced here. Many of the articles known as "Yankee notions" would find ready sale here; and the superiority of many of our manufactured goods over the cheap and inferior European articles would be sure to win them a place in every well-regulated store. Both the French and Italian lines of steamers now running between Europe and Tunisian ports receive liberal subsidies from their respective governments; and they are thus enabled to transport merchandise at comparatively low rates. I am led to the conclusion that under the present roundabout way of receiving goods, via European ports with several reshipments, American goods cannot be introduced into this market to any considerable extent with a fairly remunerative profit to the dealer. I am, however, of the opinion that a line of steamers carrying our flag and making regular trips between the United States and the ports of North Africa would very soon develop a profitable trade, and that in a short time our people would be able to regain a large share of the Mediterranean trade that was wrenched from them during the nation's great struggle for life. Important changes are taking place among the populations of Tunis. French influence is daily extending; railroads and telegraphs are being built; European commerce and financial methods are supplanting the old Mohammedan routine. Modern agriculturists and mechanics introduced by the French are infusing some new life into the rural population. The country is "waking up" from a sleep of centuries. It is a good time to strike for the recovery of our lost commercial prestige.

GEO. W. FISH, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE, *Tunis, March* 25, 1881.

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No. 2.

Vessels arriving at and departing from the various ports of the Regency of Tunis during the year 1880.

Nationality.	Number.	Tonnage.
German	5	3,686
British	215	78,000
Austrian	13	1,330
Egyptian	1	238
French	523	219,761
Greek	15	1,732
Italian	999	190,083
Norwegian	3	1,396
Turkish	47	1,956
Russian	2	455
Tunisian	138	6,666
Total	1,961	505,315

CONTINENT OF AMERICA.

IMPORTS INTO MEXICO FROM AND VIA THE UNITED STATES.

REPORT BY CONSUL SUTTON, OF MATAMOROS.

The interest taken by American merchants in the trade with Mexico has led me to believe that a tabulated statement of the imports into Mexico from and via the United States would be of interest.

I have thought that such a statement would best serve the purpose intended if presented separately from my annual commercial report, and therefore send it as soon as prepared.

As stated above, this report is confined to the imports into Mexico from the United States, and is arranged to show the values of goods passing through the United States in bond, as well as the exports of American products.

In the matter of bonded goods, the points whence exported in the United States are given, as also the ports where received in Mexico. The bulk of the bonded trade between the two countries is confined to the customs district of Brazos de Santiago, Texas, and this city. Care has been taken to show not only the trade here, but at other points on the frontier, so that an intelligent idea of its value may be had.

BONDED GOODS.

The traffic in bonded goods brought into or brought through the United States is shown first.

Table A shows the European invoice value of goods in bond exported from the United States to Mexico by United States customs districts for the five years, by separate years, ending September 30, 1880.

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TABLE A.—*Goods in bond exported from United States to Mexico.*

PORTS WHENCE EXPORTED.

Year ending—	Brazos de Santiago, Tex.	Corpus Christi, Tex.	Galveston, Tex.	New Orleans, La.
September 30, 1876	$689,384	$137,754	$105,916	$74,246
September 30, 1877	629,959	113,738	80,235	153,073
September 30, 1878	767,722	30,299	62,790	165,354
September 30, 1879	862,185	28,708	40,386	97,579
September 30, 1880	1,064,226	69,191	39,650	169,162
Five years	4,013,476	379,690	328,977	659,414

Year ending—	New York, N. Y.	San Francisco, Cal.	Saluria, Tex.	Paso del Norte, Tex.	Total.
September 30, 1876	$77,123	$46,846	.....	.....	$1,131,269
September 30, 1877	63,333	48,006	$1,238	.....	1,089,582
September 30, 1878	53,273	41,351	.....	.....	1,120,789
September 30, 1879	56,059	22,648	.....	.....	1,107,565
September 30, 1880	96,801	33,880	.....	.....	1,472,910
Five years	346,589	192,731	1,238	.....	5,922,115

To show more fully the points where these goods enter Mexico I give Table B, showing imports at Matamoros, Nuevo Laredo, rest of frontier and remainder of Mexico, of goods received in bond through the United States for the same period.

TABLE B.—*Goods in bond received in Mexico from United States.*

PORTS WHERE RECEIVED.

Year ending—	Via "Zona Libre."		Total on border.	Via all other ports.	Total bonded imports.
	Matamoros, Mexico.	New Laredo, Mexico.			
September 30, 1876	$689,384	$137,754	$827,138	$304,131	$1,131,269
September 30, 1877	629,959	113,738	*744,935	344,647	1,089,582
September 30, 1878	767,722	30,299	798,021	322,768	1,120,789
September 30, 1879	862,185	28,708	890,893	216,672	1,107,565
September 30, 1880	1,064,226	69,191	1,133,417	339,493	1,472,910
Five years	4,013,476	379,690	4,394,404	1,527,711	5,922,115

* Includes $1,238 total received at other border points above "Zona Libre."

It has been stated as an argument in favor of bonded routes through the United States to Mexico that as these Mexican merchants were certain to purchase these foreign goods, they would, if these bonded routes were discontinued, buy direct from Europe. In this event, it is stated that American merchants who now import and hold these goods in bond to sell them to these Mexican purchasers would lose the traffic and profits thereon. It is also claimed that American vessels and, on the interior Texas land routes, American freighters derive a profit from their transport which would otherwise be lost to them.

To indicate fully the amount of the border trade, I give by Table C the *per centum* of these goods going direct by sea from New York, New Orleans, Galveston, and San Francisco as compared with that going from Brazos de Santiago and Corpus Christi, Tex. The goods received

from Brazos de Santiago enter at Matamoras; those from Corpus Christi enter at Nuevo Laredo.

TABLE C.—*Bonded goods to Mexico.*

PERCENTAGE RECEIVED AT VARIOUS PORTS.

Year ending—	From Brazos de Santiago, Tex.	From Corpus Christi, Tex.	Total border.	From New York, New Orleans, Galveston, and San Francisco.
	Per cent.	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*
September 30, 1876	61	12	73	27
September 30, 1877	55	14	69	31
September 30, 1878	69	3	72	28
September 30, 1879	79	2	81	19
September 30, 1880	72	5	77	23
Average for five years	67	7	74	26

It will be seen from the above table (C) that 74 per cent. of all goods from the United States in bond for Mexico for these five years passed in across this frontier. It will also be noticed that 67 per cent. passed through at Brazos de Santiago and Matamoros, while 7 per cent. passed through Corpus Christi and the rest of the frontier, all of which, except $1,238, entered Mexico at Nuevo Laredo.

During the last four years the per cent. of these bonded goods passing the Brazos and entering Mexico at Matamoros has increased from 55 per cent. of the whole to 72 per cent. of the whole, while those passing through Corpus Christi and entering Mexico at Nuevo Laredo have decreased from 14 per cent. of the whole to 5 per cent. The increase at Matamoros is even greater than shown, as the custom-houses of Camargo and Mier, which have been included in the Matamoros total, received some goods direct during the first two years. After the abolition of these two custom-houses, all their goods, as well as those for Reynosa, Guerrero, and other towns, entered at Matamoros. The opening of the ports of Camargo and Mier on January 3, last, will change some trade from Matamoros to those cities.

In previous reports to the department on the general subject of the "Zona Libre" and bonded routes I have discussed the arguments in favor of the bonded routes across the Texas frontier. One of these is, as noted before, Table C, that American vessels and freighters transport these goods, which have been previously imported by American wholesalers in American ports, either by sea direct to Mexican ports or by land through the United States to the place of export across the frontier.

In this connection it becomes of interest to know how many of these goods *are* bought by Mexican merchants in American markets and thus transported some distance, either by water or by land, by American carriers as compared with those purchased in Europe and brought in European vessels to Brazos de Santiago and Corpus Christi for entry and export to Mexico.

*Those goods imported at Brazos de Santiago are lightered and car-

*Those goods exported at Corpus Christi are transported by American carriers some 300 miles to Laredo, Tex., where they cross into Mexico.

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ried by mail to Brownsville, Tex., a distance of 25 miles, where they cross into Mexico.

It is evident that the transport of the bonded goods received through Corpus Christi (5 per cent. of the total for the fifth year of the table) could not be of much importance. It is also evident that the mere transit of direct importations at the Brazos for so short a distance would be of little moment.

To show the relative amounts of the direct and indirect importations on this frontier, I give Table D, which shows the amount received from other United States custom-houses in American vessels and from Europe direct by European vessels, with the per centum of each for the same five years.

TABLE D.—*Importation of goods in bond for Mexico.*

DIRECT AND INDIRECT IMPORTS.

Year ending.	Brazos de Santiago, Texas.				Corpus Christi, Texas.			
	From other custom-houses.	From Europe direct.	Percentage of indirect importations.	Percentage of direct importations.	From other custom-houses.	From Europe direct.	Percentage of indirect importations.	Percentage of direct importations.
			Per ct.	*Per ct.*			*Per ct.*	*Per ct.*
September 30, 1876.....	$394,547	$339,410	53	47	$143,062	$370	100	.....
September 30, 1877.....	372,984	368,273	50	50	105,010	.....	100	.....
September 30, 1878.....	390,406	398,399	46	54	30,625	3,331	90	10
September 30, 1879.....	277,077	571,329	32	68	17,870	9,784	64	36
September 30, 1880.....	225,510	847,714	21	79	72,133	2,893	96	4
Five years.....	1,660,524	2,525,125	40	60	368,700	16,378	90	10

It will be seen by the above table that, with the exception of the fifth year for Corpus Christi, the proportionate direct importations at the two ports of Brazos de Santiago and Corpus Christi have steadily increased, while as a result the proportion of transportation by American carriers has as steadily decreased. Should the direct foreign bonded imports at Brazos de Santiago increase, as they now bid fair to do, the major part of this trade between the United States and all of Mexico will be by direct importations through that district to this city. For the year ending September 30, 1880, this direct import at Brazos was over 57 per cent. of the whole bonded trade of the United States to Mexico.

The main cause of this increase of direct importations and decrease in imports from New Orleans, New York, and Galveston is the high freight rates charged by the only steamship line running from the Brazos to those ports. While this is the main reason, there is also occasionally some delay in getting goods through New Orleans and New York custom-houses, and in the latter, it is said, small quantities are sometimes abstracted. If the goods be open for examination the interior tin or zinc case is cut, and the insurance thereby affected if the goods suffer any damage in their transit from the port where inspected to the point of final destination. These disadvantages are trifling when compared with the facility and promptness with which orders could be filled in the United States, and whenever prices and freight rates in and from New York and New Orleans are nearly as advantageous as those in and from Liverpool and Bordeaux, this trade will change back to the United States.

To show the various freight rates I have prepared and submit the following table. It may be well to say that Brazos de Santiago is the port

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for Brownsville, Tex., and that Brownsville derives nearly all its commercial importance from Matamoros, which in turn is the port of entry for a large portion of this part of Mexico.

TABLE E.—*Freight rates.*

Class.	From—	To—	Average time.	*Rates.
Steam .	New York.....	Brownsville, Tex .	15 days	35 cents per cubic foot, or $1.75 per 100 pounds, and 5 per cent primage.
Do...	New Orleans.....	....do	4 to 6 days	32 cents per cubic foot, or 80 cents per 100 pounds and no primage.
Do...	Galveston	....do	3 to 4 days	Same as New Orleans.
Sail....	New York.....	†Brazos de Santiago	30 days	15 cents per cubic foot, or 50 cents per 100 pounds, and 5 per cent. primage.
Steam .	Liverpool, Havre, and Bordeaux.	‡Off Brazos de Santiago, Tex.	Via West Indian and Mexican ports 45 days. Direct 28 days.	From Liverpool 50 to 60 cents per English ton and 10 per cent. primage. From Bordeaux, &c., 90 francs the cubic meter—35 feet 4 inches—and 10 per cent. primage.
Sail	Bordeaux, &c.....	....do	50 days	$7 to $10 per French ton of about 50 cubic feet or 2,000 pounds, and 10 per cent. primage.
Do...	Hamburg	....do	60 days	$12 per English ton, or 30 cents per cubic foot, and primage 5 per cent.

* These rates are formed from rates on staple articles and are fair averages.
† From *inside* at Brazos de Santiago, Tex., to Brownsville, Tex., is 12 cents per cubic foot, or 35 cents per 100 pounds.
‡ From *off* Brazos de Santiago, Tex., to Brownsville, Tex., same as from inside and ¼ additional for lighterage.

AMERICAN GOODS.

Having given the imports of bonded goods, I now give the same figures for the imports of American products for the same time.

Table F shows the exports to Mexico of American custom-houses for the five years, by separate years, ending September 30, 1880.

TABLE F.—*American exports to Mexico.*

Year ending—	Brazos de Santiago, Tex.	Corpus Christi, Tex.	Galveston, Tex.	New Orleans, La.	New York, N. Y.
September 30, 1876.....	$817, 525	$143, 235	$44, 234	$821, 786	$1, 282, 409
September 30, 1877.....	1, 340, 280	389, 006	9, 365	520, 154	1, 466, 151
September 30, 1878.....	1, 163, 368	381, 368	7, 578	562, 266	1, 777, 771
September 30, 1879.....	1, 275, 267	475, 070	6, 855	824, 612	1, 526, 101
September 30, 1880.....	1, 239, 341	579, 182	12, 128	1, 154, 798	2, 016, 269
Five years.....	5, 835, 781	1, 967, 861	80, 160	3, 883, 616	8, 068, 701

Year ending—	San Francisco, Cal.	Saluria, Tex.	Paso del Norte, Tex.	All others, not elsewhere specified.	Totals.
September 30, 1876.....	$1, 107, 725	$162, 105	$20, 939	$65, 580	$4, 465, 538
September 30, 1877.....	1, 222, 865	462, 918	42, 906	102, 593	5, 536, 238
September 30, 1878.....	1, 610, 673	293, 937	54, 095	164, 656	6, 015, 722
September 30, 1879.....	1, 400, 490	210, 869	54, 260	127, 352	5, 900, 876
September 30, 1880.....	1, 376, 228	329, 101	.....	138, 383	6, 845, 430
Five years	6, 717, 981	1, 458, 930	172, 200	598, 564	28, 783, 794

To show at what point these goods enter Mexico I give the following table:

TABLE G.—*Mexican imports of American goods.*

Year ending—	Zona Libre.		Piedras Negras, Mexico.	Upper Rio Grande.	Total on frontier.	All other points.
	Matamoros, Mexico.	Nuevo Laredo, Mexico.				
September 30, 1876	$817, 525	$143, 235	$162, 105	$20, 939	$1, 143, 804	$3, 321, 734
September 30, 1877	1, 340, 280	389, 006	462, 918	42, 906	2, 235, 110	3, 321, 128
September 30, 1878	1, 163, 368	381, 368	293, 937	54, 095	1, 892, 768	4, 122, 944
September 30, 1879	1, 275, 267	475, 070	210, 869	54, 260	2, 015, 466	3, 885, 410
September 30, 1880	1, 239, 341	579, 182	329, 101	.....	2, 147, 624	4, 697, 806
Five years	5, 835, 781	1, 967, 861	1, 458, 930	172, 200	9, 434, 772	19, 349, 022

The following table shows the per centum of American goods received at the four border points named, as compared with the totals at all other Mexican ports for the same time:

TABLE H.—*Percentage received at various ports.*

Year ending—	Matamoros, Mexico.	Nuevo Laredo, Mexico.	Total Zona Libre.	Piedras Negras, Mexico.	Total frontier.	All other Mexican ports.
	Per cent.	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*
September 30, 1876	18	3	21	3	25	75
September 30, 1877	24	7	31	8	40	60
September 30, 1878	22	7	29	6	37	63
September 30, 1879	21	8	29	4	33	67
September 30, 1880	18	8	26	5	31	69
Five years	21	7	28	5	33	67

By Table H, above, we see that twenty-one hundredths of all American imports pass in at Matamoros; seven hundredths at Nuevo Laredo, and five hundredths at Piedras Negras, making, with that of the Upper Rio Grande, one-third of the total that pass into Mexico which cross this frontier.

Having given tables showing bonded and American trade separately, I now give Table I, by which a comparative view of the two may be had.

TABLE I.—*Mexican imports of American and bonded goods.*

Year ending—	Zona Libre.				Rest of frontier.		Total frontier.	
	Matamoros.		Nuevo Laredo.					
	American.	Bonded.	American.	Bonded.	American.	Bonded.	American.	Bonded.
September 30, 1876	$817, 525	$689, 384	$143, 235	$137, 754	$183, 044	.....	$1, 143, 804	$827, 138
September 30, 1877	1, 340, 280	629, 959	389, 006	113, 738	505, 824	$1, 238	2, 235, 110	744, 935
September 30, 1878	1, 163, 368	767, 722	381, 368	30, 299	348, 032	.....	1, 892, 768	798, 021
September 30, 1879	1, 275, 267	862, 185	475, 070	28, 708	265, 129	.....	2, 015, 466	890, 893
September 30, 1880	1, 239, 341	1, 064, 226	579, 182	69, 191	329, 101	.....	2, 147, 624	1, 133, 417
Five years	5, 835, 781	4, 013, 476	1, 967, 861	379, 690	1, 631, 130	1, 238	9, 434, 772	4, 394, 404

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The following table (K) shows the total imports from the United States of America and bonded goods at various points on this frontier as compared with the total to other parts of Mexico, and the per centum at each for the same period of five years.

TABLE K.—*Total imports, and via United States, with percentage.*

Places importing.	First year.	Second year.	Third year.	Fourth year.	Fifth year.	Five years.	Average per cent. 5 years.
Matamoros, Mexico	$1, 506, 909	$1, 970, 239	$1, 931, 090	$2, 137, 452	$2, 303, 567	$9, 849, 257	28
Nuevo Laredo, Mexico	280, 989	502, 744	411, 667	503, 868	648, 373	2, 347, 641	7
Total Zona Libre	1, 787, 898	2, 472, 983	2, 342, 757	2, 641, 320	2, 951, 940	12, 196, 898	35
Rest frontier	183, 044	507, 062	348, 032	265, 129	329, 101	1, 632, 368	5
Total frontier	1, 970, 942	2, 980, 045	2, 690, 789	2, 906, 449	3, 281, 041	13, 829, 266	40
All other ports	3, 625, 865	3, 666, 135	4, 445, 712	4, 102, 082	5, 037, 299	20, 877, 093	60
All Mexico	5, 596, 807	6, 646, 180	7, 136, 501	7, 008, 531	8, 318, 340	34, 706, 359	100

All values given in these tables are the original invoice values. It would be difficult to give an estimate of the local values, which would be correct. The tables are based on the reports of the Bureau of Statistics of the Treasury Department. I have, however, figured out many purchases, and have found that cotton goods, &c., cost from 25 per cent. to 40 per cent. to lay down in this market, including the difference in money. Shelf hardware, furniture, &c., has ranged from 75 per cent. to 150 per cent. The payment of the Mexican tariff, when the goods leave this city for the interior, may be safely estimated at about 90 per cent. on the invoice value.

WARNER P. SUTTON,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Matamoros, April 9, 1881.

COMMERCE OF THE DISTRICT OF MATAMOROS.

REPORT BY CONSUL SUTTON, OF MATAMOROS.

This part of the border has now enjoyed more than three years of quiet, and the indications for a continuation of the same are more favorable than ever before. Trade is increasing, though but slowly, being limited by the ability of the people to purchase. There is to be noted a slight increase of American over European imports. Where the imports of American and of European goods for last year were about $1,100,000 each, this half year shows the imports of American goods at $646,521, while those from Europe are $531,489.

The exports to the United States show but little change. The declared exports from this consular district amount to about $325,000, and nearly all of the remainder, about $440,000, is silver coin and bullion. It is not possible to give reliable figures of the silver movement, as much of

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it is not only smuggled out of Mexico to avoid paying the export duties, but is also smuggled into the United States. The latter is not from desire to save payment of the import permit, but to avoid publicity.

The opening of the ports of Camargo and Mier has somewhat increased the business of those two cities, but the increase is not marked.

Some $10,000 worth of pig lead has been reported from the mines near Camargo.

Considerable lumber from the Sabine has been brought into this city and the demand is still good.

The trade in leaf tobacco is quite large, but there is so much competition that I do not think the New Orleans dealers are making much money from sales at present prices.

The full stock of machinery, &c., for the mint at Durango passed through here some months since, all from the United States. It was the first shipment of this sort that I could learn of. The total Philadelphia cost was about $20,000. The freight from this city to Durango was about $5,000, Mexican money.

By Table A, herewith inclosed, the imports of 107 classes of American goods, of the total value of $646,521, are given.

By Table B the imports of 73 classes of European goods, of the total value of $531,489, are given.

By Table C certain imports are divided into three classes, the first class being those wholly, or in great part, from the United States; the second from Europe in the same proportion, while the third is nearly equally divided between the two.

As this is my first half annual report I am unable to show any marked change in the imports, but from the figures given I conclude that the United States has gained something in printed cottons, while Europe (Great Britain) has largely lost. In white cottons no change. Other cottons show small loss for Europe and considerable gain for United States. Machinery which formerly came in nearly equal quantities from United States and Europe now comes almost entirely from the United States.

Table D shows the exports, all of which are to the United States.

The first three articles, gold coin and silver coin and bullion, are only approximately correct, for reasons previously stated.

Of the long list of exports, those numbered in the margin as 14, 28, 29, 30, 38, 40, 47, 48, 55, 90, 154, 168, and 189, make the bulk of the Mexican exports proper.

The others are all, or nearly all, European goods which have passed through the United States in bond into the Zona Libre, and have been there purchased and regularly imported on the American side. This would indicate that the Zona Libre merchants sell about $20,000 per annum of goods to purchasers on the American bank, which are regularly entered at the American custom-house.

WARNER P. SUTTON,
United States Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Matamoros, May 11, 1881.

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TABLE A.—*Imports of American goods, half year ending March 31, 1881; consular district of Matamoros.*

	Articles.	Quantity.	Value.*
5	Plows	344	$1,377
6	Agricultural implements, other	.....	78
7	Hogs	110	330
8	Horned cattle	190	1,654
9	Horses	204	2,800
11	Sheep	14,723	14,569
12	Live animals, other	.....	3,540
15	Beer in bottles, dozens	4,972	6,904
17	Bells	.....	75
19	Blacking	.....	742
22	Books	.....	1,455
23	Brass, manufactures of	.....	39
25	Bread and biscuits, pounds	30,360	3,112
26	Indian corn, bushels	7,339	7,533
27	Corn meal, barrels	10	84
32	Wheat flour, do	4,409	40,001
34	Maizena	.....	3,656
37	Candles, pounds	28,445	4,363
38	Carriages	.....	3,283
39	Cars, railway	3	1,800
40	Clocks	.....	783
44	Combs	.....	670
50	Unginned cotton, pounds	16,818	443
51	Cottons, colored, square yards	1,461,166	98,445
52	Cottons, plain, do	604,483	43,721
53	Cotton, other manufactures	.....	38,002
54	Drugs	.....	16,166
56	Earthenware	.....	750
57	Fancy articles	.....	9,564
59	Green apples, bushels	333	617
60	Other fruits	.....	1,473
61	Preserved fruits	.....	1,896
65	Glassware	.....	8,011
75	Hats, &c., of wool, dozens	361	3,361
80	Hemp, manufactures of	.....	1,796
81	Hides and skins	.....	219
91	Sheet-iron, pounds	500	55
92	Castings, iron	.....	2,460
95	Locomotives	1	5,000
98	Machinery	.....	31,960
99	Nails, pounds	137,915	8,362
100	Other manufactures of iron	.....	18,448
102	Cutlery	.....	646
103	Edge tools	.....	4,283
105	Fire-arms	.....	6,348
106a	Jewelry	.....	413
109	Lead	.....	75
110	Fine leather	.....	1,684
112	Boots and shoes, pairs	13,240	16,099
113	Saddlery	.....	1,083
115	Lime and cement, barrels	138	701
119	Stone, manufactures of	.....	15
120	Matches	.....	400
123	Pianos	.....	2,167
125	Rosin and turpentine, barrels	25	287
126	Tar and pitch, do	20	150
130	Oil, illuminating, gallons	70,330	14,895
138	Oil, linseed, do	942	786
142	Cartridges	.....	4,442
143	Gunpowder, pounds	2,445	1,174
144	Shot, do	125	20
146	Paints	.....	2,980
148	Paper	.....	7,586
149	Perfumery	.....	989
150	Plated ware	.....	360
151	Type	.....	188
152	Bacon, pounds	430	72
152a	Hams, do	10,172	1,828
153a	Cured beef, do	98	10
154	Butter, do	10,143	2,719
155	Cheese, do	4,768	914
156	Condensed milk	.....	74
161	Cured fish	.....	1,104
162	Lard, pounds	204,954	22,927
163	Preserved meats	.....	572
164	Oysters	.....	4
165	Pickles	.....	68
168	Potatoes, bushels	920	1,627
169	Vegetables, other	.....	343

* United States gold.

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TABLE A.—*Imports of American goods, &c.*—Continued.

	Articles.	Quantity.	Value.*
170	Vegetables, prepared	.....	$351
171	Quicksilver ..... pounds..	4, 550	2, 000
174	Rice ..... do....	980	67
175	Salt ..... bushels..	180	254
179	Garden seed	.....	80
180	Sewing-machines	.....	10, 399
182	Soap, other ..... pounds..	291, 459	14, 390
186	Distilled spirits ..... gallons..	20, 751	10, 376
188	Starch ..... pounds..	89, 464	5, 899
190	Brown sugar ..... do....	862	72
191	Refined sugar ..... do....	257, 525	25, 614
192	Molasses ..... gallons..	46	25
193	Candy, &c ..... pounds..	4, 884	861
194	Tallow ..... do....	2, 300	180
195	Tin, manufactures of	.....	2, 507
196	Leaf-tobacco ..... pounds..	428, 174	56, 164
200	Trunks	.....	2, 376
202	Varnish ..... gallons..	289	360
205	Vinegar ..... do....	206	126
207	Wax	1, 500	280
208	Wearing apparel	.....	1, 281
211	Boards ..... thousand feet..	246	8, 578
213	Shingles ..... thousand..	20	121
217	Lumber, all other	.....	124
223	Furniture	.....	4, 098
224	Wooden-ware	.....	572
225	Wood, other manufactures of	.....	4, 167
228	Wool, manufactures of	.....	5, 748
	Total	.....	646, 521

* United States gold.

TABLE B.—*Imports of European goods, half year ending March* 31, 1881; *consular district of Matamoras.*

	Articles.	Quantity.	Value.*
11	Cocoa ..... pounds..	6, 276	$933
13	Coffee ..... do....	340, 997	47, 113
14	Tea ..... do....	260	88
47	All other free of bond	.....	633
	Total free of bond	.....	48, 767
	BONDED.		
49	Beer, ale, &c ..... gallons..	182	138
50	Books	.....	2, 006
51	Brass, manufactures of	.....	1, 317
57	Rice ..... pounds..	194, 855	5, 004
65	Buttons	.....	2, 379
66	Chemicals	.....	8, 194
69	Articles of wear	.....	21, 471
74	Copper, manufactures of	.....	2, 034
76	Cottons, plain ..... square yards..	865, 652	58, 626
77	Cottons, printed ..... do....	656, 353	55, 178
78	Cotton hosiery	.....	6, 143
79	Cotton jeans, &c ..... square yards..	130, 650	19, 324
80	Cotton, other manufactures of	.....	42, 373
81	Earthenware	.....	12, 244
82	Fancy goods	.....	7, 877
85	Sardines	.....	821
86	Fish, other	.....	77
88	Flax, yard goods	.....	28, 993
89	Flax, other manufactures	.....	2, 536
90	Fruits	.....	4, 434
91	Furs	.....	3, 932
92	Glass, window ..... square feet..	16, 525	564
97	Glass, other manufactures of	.....	2, 734
102	Hemp, manufactures of	.....	415
103	India-rubber, manufactures of	.....	142

* United States gold.

TABLE B.—*Imports of European goods, &c.*—Continued.

	Articles.		Quantity.	Value.*
	BONDED—Continued.			
106	Bar-iron	pounds	785, 582	$13, 190
108	Hoop-iron	do	14, 744	302
110	Sheet-iron	do	29, 256	648
113	Chains, &c., iron		6, 340	279
114	Machinery			1, 197
115	Fire arms			47
116	Bar steel			3, 222
117	Steel rails	pounds	537, 425	8, 392
118	Cutlery			2, 267
119	Files, &c			630
120	Saws, &c			197
121	Other manufactures of iron and steel			9, 789
122	Jewelry			6, 134
130	Gloves of kid, &c	dozen pairs	79	694
131	Leather, other manufactures			6, 662
133	Metal, manufactures of			3, 151
134	Musical instruments			1, 768
137	Oil, olive	gallons	1, 419	1, 853
139	Oil, vegetable	do	525	430
142	Paintings, &c			372
148	Paper, writing			7, 309
150	Paper, other manufactures of			2, 376
151	Perfumery			2, 385
154	Provisions			1, 454
161	Silk, manufactures of			15, 239
166	Spices	pounds	20, 123	2, 572
167	Straw, manufactures of			305
172	Candy, &c	pounds	287	49
174	Tin in plates	hundredweight	448	2, 187
175	Tin, manufactures of			31
177	Cigars	pounds	4, 342	3, 681
180	Spirits in casks	gallons	2, 097	2, 220
181	Spirits in bottles	dozen	1, 612	9, 524
182	Wine in casks	gallons	15, 933	7, 095
183	Wine in bottles	dozen	3, 512	9, 301
184	Wood, manufactures of			3, 093
190	Woolen cloth			32, 068
192	Woolen shawls			11, 103
193	Woolen blankets			2, 919
194	Woolen carpets	square yards	318	171
195	Woolen dress goods	do	34, 049	9, 866
196	Woolen hosiery			1, 785
197	Wool, other manufactures			3, 097
200	All other bonded articles			1, 282
				482, 722
	Add free of bond			48, 767
	Total			531, 489

* United States gold.

TABLE C.—*Comparative imports, half year ending March 31, 1881, consular district of Matamoras.*

Articles.	Whence.	
	United States.	Europe.
Live animals	$22, 893	
Beer in bottles	6, 904	$138
Bread and breadstuffs	54, 386	
Candles	4, 363	
Carriages	3, 283	
Cars, railway	1, 800	
Hats, &c., of wool	3, 361	
Hemp, manufactures of	1, 596	415
Iron castings	2, 460	

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TABLE C.—*Comparative imports, &c.*—Continued.

Articles.	Country from.	
	United States.	Europe.
Locomotives	$5,000	.....
Machinery	31,960	$1,197
Nails	8,362	.....
Edge tools	4,283	.....
Fire-arms	6,348	.....
Oils, illuminating	14,895	.....
Cartridges	4,442	.....
Paints	2,989	.....
Provisions	32,541	1,854
Quicksilver	2,000	.....
Sewing machines	10,399	.....
Soap	14,390	.....
Distilled spirits	10,376	.....
Starch	5,899	.....
Sugar, refined	25,614	.....
Tin, manufactures of	2,507	21
Tobacco, leaf	56,164	.....
Trunks	2,376	.....
	341,591	3,625
Coffee	.....	47,113
Rice	.....	5,004
Buttons	.....	2,379
Articles of wear	.....	21,471
Copper, manufactures of	.....	2,034
Cotton hosiery	.....	6,143
Cotton jeans	.....	19,324
Earthenware	759	12,244
Flax, yard goods	.....	28,933
Flax, other manufactures	.....	2,536
Furs	.....	3,932
Bar iron	.....	13,190
Bar steel	.....	3,222
Steel rails	.....	8,392
Cutlery	646	2,987
Jewelry	413	6,134
Metal, manufactures of	.....	3,151
Oil, olive	.....	1,853
Perfumery	989	2,385
Silk, manufactures of	.....	15,239
Spices	.....	2,572
Tin, in plates	.....	2,187
Cigars*	.....	3,661
Spirits in casks	.....	2,220
Spirits in bottles	.....	9,824
Wine in casks	.....	7,095
Wine in bottles	.....	9,301
Wool, manufactures of	5,748	60,979
	8,555	305,505
Books	1,455	2,006
Drugs (chemicals)	16,166	8,194
Cottons, plain	43,721	58,626
Cottons, colored	98,445	55,178
Cotton, other manufactures	38,002	42,373
Fancy articles	9,564	7,877
Fruits	3,986	4,434
Glassware and glass	8,011	3,149
Other manufactures of iron and steel	18,448	9,789
Leather, manufactures of	18,866	7,266
Musical instruments	2,167	1,768
Paper	7,586	9,676
Wood and manufactures of	17,663	3,093
Total	**284,080**	**213,429**

* From Cuba.

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TABLE D.—*Exports, all to United States, half year ending March 31, 1881, consular district of Matamoros.*

	Articles.	Quantity.	Value.*
	COIN AND BULLION.		
21	Gold coin		$451
22	Silver bullion		36,983
23	Silver coin		391,493
	Total coin and bullion		428,927
	FREE OF DUTY.		
2	United States products brought back		2,621
9	Chemicals, not elsewhere specified		147
14	Cotton seed ..... pounds..	2,080	49
28	Hair, all kinds ..... do....	53,010	10,421
29	Hides and skins		242,868
30	Personal effects		200
38	Rags ..... pounds..	21,100	211
40	Seeds, all other		14
47	All other articles free of duty		21,266
	†Total all other articles free of duty		277,797
	Add coin and bullion		428,927
	Total free of duty		706,724
	DUTIABLE.		
48	Live animals	10,614	30,056
55	Indian corn ..... bushels..	2,440	1,695
57	Rice ..... pounds..	62	2
65	Buttons		3
66	Chemicals		49
69	Articles of wear		55
74	Copper, manufactures of, not elsewhere specified		196
76	Cottons, plain ..... square yards..	7	1
77	Cottons, printed ..... do....	20	3
78	Cotton hosiery		14
80	Cotton, other manufactures		14
81	Earthenware		163
82	Fancy goods		2
85	Sardines ..... boxes..	211½	49
88	Flax cloth		11
90	Fruits		501
91	Furs		2
97	Glass, manufactures of		297
102	Hemp, manufactures of		15
106	Bar iron ..... pounds..	137	3
116	Bar steel ..... do....	152	4
118	Cutlery		55
121	Other manufactures of iron and steel		18
122	Jewelry		1
129	Leather, all kinds		379
130	Kid gloves ..... dozen pairs..	½	4
131	Leather, other manufactures of		269
132	Stone, manufactures of		21
133	Metal, manufactures of		621
135	Oils, paraffine ..... gallons..	168	320
138	Oil, olive ..... do....	5½	9
139	Oil, vegetable ..... do....	20	7
142	Plaster casts and statuary		19
148	Paper, writing		128
150	Paper, other manufactures of		5
151	Perfumery		91
154	Provisions		251
155	Salt ..... hundredweight..	100	60
161	Silk, manufactures of		42
166	Spices ..... pounds..	1,306½	187
167	Straw, manufactures of		4
168	Sugar, brown ..... pounds..	13,673	683
176	Tobacco, leaf ..... do....	12	7
180	Spirits in casks		299
181	Spirits in bottles		1,355
182	Wine in casks		2,519
183	Wine in bottles		231
184	Wood, manufactures of		77
189	Wool ..... pounds..	154,196	11,425
190	Woolen cloth ..... do....	139⅓	229
192	Woolen shawls ..... do....	15	47
193	Woolen blankets ..... do....	6	6
194	Woolen carpets ..... do....	39⅓	98
196	Woolen hosiery ..... do....	1	5

* U. S. gold. † Free of duty in United States.

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TABLE D.—*Exports, all to United States, &c.*—Continued.

	Articles.	Quantity.	Value.*
	COIN AND BULLION—Continued.		
197	Wool, other manufactures ..... pounds..	20	$64
200	All other dutiable articles	.....	1,352
	Total dutiable	.....	58,058
	Add free of duty	.....	706,724
	Total exports	.....	764,782

* United States gold.

CONDITION OF AFFAIRS IN SONORA.

REPORT BY CONSUL WILLARD, OF GUAYMAS.

I have the honor to inform you that perfect tranquillity continues to prevail throughout this consular district. The impending elections of governor and other State officials has caused no undue excitement, and the present appearances seem to indicate that they will not be attended by civil disturbances.

Railroads.—Track-laying, which had been interrupted for several weeks, owing to the lack of ties, was resumed on the Sonora Railroad on the 4th instant. There are now sufficient ties to prosecute the work, and if the ships from California, expected with ties, arrive in due time, it is anticipated that no further stoppage will occur till the road reaches Hermosillo. The poles of the railroad telegraph are being placed along the line of the road. The surveys of the road between Hermosillo and the frontier are now being carried forward with energy, and contracts for the roadbed will soon be given. Thirty-five English miles of track are now completed. Some little difficulty regarding right of way has been experienced at Hermosillo, but this will undoubtedly be arranged without much difficulty.

The exact line of the route from Hermosillo to the frontier has not yet been decided upon, and two surveys have so far been made. It is supposed that the road will cross the boundary line somewhat near 109° longitude.

Mining.—All industrial pursuits in this consular district have received an impulse, particularly mining. Within the last three months a number of American companies have been organized to work the mines in the northern districts of the State. A valuable deposit of antimony ore was discovered in the Altar district during the past year, and the company working the same has made two shipments of 100 tons each of the ore to San Francisco.

It is shipped a few miles north of Libertad, at a place called Salinas, in 30° latitude and approximately 200 miles above Guaymas, in the Gulf. The vessels which took this ore came here with merchandise to discharge, thence proceeded to Salinas to load, returning to Guaymas to obtain their clearance, and afterwards proceeding to San Francisco. Several other deposits of antimony have been discovered besides the one mentioned above.

The valuable mining property of ex-Governor Pesqueira, situated in the northern portion of this State, was lately sold to a New York com-

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pany for $350,000. Other mines have changed hands at smaller sums. A purchase was recently made of the mines of Huruafra, in Chihuahua, bordering on the southeast part of this consular district, also to a New York company, for the sum of $415,000.

The North Mexican Manufacturing Company of New York, whose mines are situated near Alamos, in the southern part of this consular district, is erecting a 40-stamp mill there and making preparations to work them on an extensive scale. These mines are considered the best in that section of the State.

Americans.—The American population in this consular district may at present be estimated at 500, not including the men in the employ of the railroad. Two years ago the Americans residing in it were estimated at about half this number.

American imports.—During the past six months 8,430 tons of machinery, general merchandise, and railroad supplies, besides 1,850,220 feet of lumber, have been received at this port on American vessels, valued at $464,324, of which $111,800 worth and about one million feet of lumber were for the railroad company. This consular district produces no lumber, and the supply is received entirely from the United States. The amount of railway supplies, steel rails, &c., for the first 100 miles, received direct from Europe, on English or German ships, is not included in these figures.

Exports.—The value of exports amounted to $288,000 during the same period, and consisted mainly of hides, pelts, and treasure forwarded to San Fransisco per steamer Newbern.

An American mercantile house, a branch of that of Messrs. Wm. B. Hooper & Co., of San Francisco, has recently been established here. The article in which they deal extensively is lubricators (oil of all classes, as well as general merchandise).

Real estate in and around Guaymas is held at advanced figures. But little has as yet changed hands, as up to within a short time an idea seems to have prevailed that the railroad was not intended to go farther than Hermosillo. This opinion appears to have undergone a considerable change, both in this State and in California, and the ultimate and not far distant completion of the road to the frontier is now looked upon as a positive fact. It is therefore to be expected that investments in real estate will follow within the next six months.

Water supply.—A franchise has been granted for twenty-five years by the State government to supply Guaymas with water; another one for a city street railroad, either with steam or horse power, for 80 years; and a third privilege for lighting the streets with gas or electric light has also been conceded.

A petition was forwarded to the Federal Government some time ago by a company of several persons praying for the grant of the shallow-water lands in the bay bordering on the city front, for the purpose of filling them in, and after having reclaimed them to devote them to building purposes.

A. WILLARD,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Guaymas, Mexico, April 12, 1881.

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CENTRAL AMERICA.

EUROPEAN VS. AMERICAN INTERESTS IN CENTRAL AMERICA.

REPORT BY MR. LOGAN, MINISTER-RESIDENT AT GUATEMALA CITY, ON THE BEST MEANS OF PROMOTING THE COMMERCIAL INTERESTS OF THE UNITED STATES IN CENTRAL AMERICA.

* * * * * * *

BRITISH INTERESTS IN THE ISTHMUS CANAL.

Twenty-five years ago it was frankly avowed by Great Britain that an uninterrupted transit between the Atlantic and Pacific was necessary to the preservation of her relations in Australia and the East, and it was deemed especially important that any canal which might be cut through the Isthmus, if not actually owned by her own citizens, should be, at least, beyond the danger of closure against her shipping. Now, if her agents are to be credited, she professes to believe that her commerce would have but little interest in any ship canal which might be opened through the Isthmus to connect the two oceans.

In this statement there appears to be some show of reason. The trade between England and India, Australia, China, and Japan is now done by several lines of steamships. The largest of these consists of fine ships of full power, which have arrangements for sailing as well as steaming. The outward passage is made via the Cape of Good Hope, after rounding which they strike the regular westerly trade winds and are enabled to take advantage of those winds to the extent of two or three knots per hour. The ships of this line go to Australia, coaling at the principal places, Sidney, Melbourne, &c. Returning, the ships come via the Suez Canal, stopping at Naples and other ports in the Mediterranean, thus getting the advantage of the local traffic, and escaping the head winds to be encountered in returning by the Cape. The outward voyage is made in 23 days. Other lines going to India, China, and Japan go out and return via the Suez Canal. The large trade of England in the East is done almost exclusively by these steamship lines, the sailing vessels having been driven out of the trade by them. Hence, none of these ships could be expected to make the voyage via the American Isthmus, except possibiy those going to Japan, which country would be rather nearer via the latter route. The Indian, Chinese, and Australian routes would remain as they now are.

The trade of England with the west coast of South America is done by steamships, via the Straits of Magellan. These ships stop at Rio Janeiro, Montevideo, and Buenos Ayres, the business of which places is very valuable to them, especially that of the former, since the coffee trade of Brazil has grown to such proportions. Therefore these ships would continue their present route through the straits, and would probably do business as far north as Callao in Peru.

There would then be left but two lines of British trade, which would probably seek the route by the Isthmus. One of these lines would do service on the South Pacific coast below Panama and as far as Callao. The other would do the present small business of England with the Central American States, and run to San Francisco, to carry the wheat and other articles she so largely buys of us. This trade is now done by sailing ships via Cape Horn, a very long route; steamships could do the business more quickly and cheaper via a canal through the Isthmus.

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In addition to these, an English line to Japan direct might be established; but you will see from these statements that the great bulk of the English trade with the East would not be diverted from its present channels.

HOW TO BUILD UP AMERICAN TRADE IN CENTRAL AMERICA.

In view of the present aspect of affairs in Central America, the necessity for development of American commercial relations in these countries is very apparent. This is fraught with more difficulties than would appear to a superficial observer. There is lacking, to the full extent, the fundamental basis upon which successful trade relations are built up and sustained, viz, that of mutual purchases. The coffee of Central America, its great staple, is largely sold in European markets; hence the credits of the sellers are mostly in those countries. This being the case, it results almost as an unavoidable consequence that the purchases of the merchants are made there of all articles which do not by reason of vastly superior quality or lower price compel a purchase elsewhere. The circumstance named is so powerful in its effects, however, as to overcome all ordinary advantages in other directions. Let me illustrate the point by citing the case of Chili. The great exports of that country are copper, silver, and wheat. Thirty years ago the United States bought largely of these articles; and during the early settlement of California, Chili exclusively supplied the flour consumed by the pioneer population of our far-off Pacific coast. Then the credits of Chili were in our country, and the logical consequence was that we enjoyed a large trade with that republic, her imports being almost exclusively from the United States. The development of the copper of the Lake Superior region supplied our own demands for that article; the enormous yield of our silver districts closed the market in that direction, while our wheat production has become one of the chief reliances of those countries compelled to look to other nations for their supply of that staple. With the exception of a little wool, and some minor articles of trade, we now buy nothing of Chili, and, with the exception of some agricultural machinery, &c., she buys nothing of us. When I was stationed there four years ago, it was almost impossible to buy a bill of exchange on New York, and the usual method of drawing was by draft on London or Paris, which draft was sent to New York for sale.

Much the same state of things exists as a barrier to our trade with the states of Central America, though to a less extent, for we do buy some coffee and other products of them, while they buy flour and a few other articles of us. This is the great lacking element of our successful trade with Central America, however, and having had occasion to point it out some time ago to the merchants of California, the latter are very anxious to conclude a reciprocity treaty with Guatemala, based upon the article of sugar. This interest is languishing in Guatemala for want of a market, and the government would be glad to exchange the free entry of hardware and flour for the free entry of sugar. I do not think the interchange would be at all fair to our own country, however. There is no growth to the state or its cities, because the foreign immigration is wholly insignificant; consequently there is no building to any extent, and the consumption of hardware proper is very small. Some idea of the demand for the article of flour may be formed from the following facts: The whole population of the republic, probably, does not exceed 1,500,000. Of these there cannot be more than 100,000 pure whites, and perhaps about the same number of mixed blood; the rest are full-

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blooded Indians; perhaps less than 200,000 of these live in contiguity to the white and mixed classes, and may be said to be partly civilized. The rest live in the wilds of the mountains. These latter are almost naked; they have no homes save grass huts; they sleep on a board or on the ground, and eat plantains, fruits, and corn cakes for a regular diet. Among the whole of the poorer population of the country and the cities, a roll of wheat bread is a luxury not often had, and it is surprising to learn how largely the whites live upon the staple diet of the poor, consisting of *frijoles* (beans), *tortillas* (corn cakes), plantains, fruits, &c. With such a population the consumption of wheat flour could not be sufficiently large for years to come to offset the free importation of sugar into the United States, which latter certainly would be large, as all of the sugar of Central America would find its way to this country to be shipped as "Guatemala sugar." These are the obstacles presenting themselves to such a treaty, not to mention the hostility certain to be arrayed against it by the sugar-producing interest of our own country.

EUROPEAN VS. AMERICAN MANUFACTURES.

The question of trade with Central America has many elements to it, the foregoing being the prime factor. But there are others, also, connected with our manufacturers and merchants, the former of whom will not make goods suited to the tastes of these people, and the latter of whom will not pack goods with any reasonable degree of care and security. The manufacturers of England and France make dress and other goods especially for the Spanish-American markets which could not be sold elsewhere. They have sent agents out to study the tastes and wants of the people, which they have afterwards proceeded to cultivate by the manufacture of goods suited to them.

EUROPEAN VS. AMERICAN PACKING.

All European merchants excel those of the United States in the item of packing, but those of France have almost made it a fine art. They employ regular packers in all establishments of any pretension who have learned the business as a trade. The box is made of a peculiar white wood, which is close grained, exceedingly tough, and very difficult to split. These features enable them to make the boards of the box about one-half as thick as the ordinary American pine box and, about one-half the weight, or even less. The box is put together with a round wrought-wire nail, which is very difficult to draw out of the wood. Goods are packed in sealed tin cases, which are put inside the wooden box. This latter is then securely banded with iron straps. This box, weighing greatly less than the American box, an important consideration in the matter of freight bills, will stand a degree of pitching and throwing about which would tear the pine box of American merchants to pieces. The pine is not a suitable wood for boxing. It has no toughness, will not hold a nail, and easily splits. To make the matter worse, our merchants use a cast-iron nail, easily broken, and more easily drawn out of the wood by reason of the loose texture of the latter. To cap the whole business, the strap of wood or iron is often dispensed with by the American merchant; and goods are sent out in a heavy pine box, loosely nailed together, to stand the racket of steamships, launches, railroads, and the primitive wagon-roads of mountainous countries like Central America. The inevitable result of it is that the loss by breakage and stealage in the American box is so great that

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but a little experience satisfies the foreign merchant that he cannot buy goods in American markets.

DISHONEST AMERICAN MERCHANTS.

But there is still another evil operating against American trade in these countries. It is not pleasant to admit, but it is too much of a truth to ignore, that we have a class of merchants in our country who drive away foreign trade from our markets by dishonest dealing.

This dishonesty consists in short weights and measures, and in inferior qualities sold for the better ones. The honest American merchant who, wondering why our foreign trade does not increase faster, suggests meetings and government action through our ministers and consuls, is little aware of how large an extent the evil consists in some dishonest neighbor who, having sold a third or fourth class article for the best, and three-quarters of a pound of an article for a pound, has taught the consumer to purchase in markets where punctilious exactness in all mercantile dealings is practiced, whereby he not only gets what he pays for, but avoids paying a high rate of duty on an amount of goods he does not receive.

There are still other elements connected with the subject of our foreign trade which the length of this dispatch prevents me from touching upon at this time.

TRADE OF SALVADOR WITH THE UNITED STATES.

I have just received the Salvador Diario Official of November 10, 1880, which contains tables showing the imports and exports of the Republic of Salvador, for the year ending September 30, 1880, translations of which are inclosed under cover of this dispatch.* The self-evident discrepancies which appear in the tables demonstrate that they cannot be entirely correct; but they are doubtless sufficiently accurate to demonstrate a number of interesting facts, which you will perceive by a careful scrutiny of the tables. Those which I may call your attention to are, firstly, that the trade of the Republic of Salvador is largely with the United States, as appears from the circumstances that of the 142,082 packages of merchandise imported during the year, 67,162 packages, or nearly one-half the whole amount, were from our own country; and of the 161,823 packages exported, 63,122, being only 7,779 packages less than one-half the whole exportation, were sent to the United States; secondly, that the articles imported more largely from the United States than from European countries were provisions, flour (the total importation being from California), fine hardware, and machinery. Of the latter, we sold 2,342 packages, as against 1,607 sold by all Europe. Sewing machines probably constituted a large proportion of the packages under this heading, as imported from the United States; thirdly, that the article more largely bought by the United States was crude sugar, and that more than one-third of the coffee export was to the United States; fourthly, the articles more largely imported from European countries were cotton and linen goods, wines and liquors, crockery and glass ware, drugs and perfumery, and iron ware; and the articles more largely exported to European countries were indigo and coffee.

The showing of trade between the United States and the Republic of Salvador is very favorable to the former, and is to be considered as an

*These tables will be found among the NOTES at the close of this number.

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illustration of the correctness of the principle stated in the body of the dispatch, viz, that mutual purchases underlie permanent trade relations. In the present case, the trade is divided between the United States and the countries of Europe for the reason that all buy largely of the products of Salvador. In the case that we bought nothing of that country, then all of its purchases would be made in Europe (because its credits would be there exclusively), with the exception of such articles from the United States as command a market, the only one of these being, in the present instance, the flour of California.

One of the important showings of the tables is that the exports of Salvador largely exceed the imports, and accordingly it should be a prosperous country. That it is not is entirely due to causes to be detailed in a future dispatch.

C. A. LOGAN,
Minister Resident.

UNITED STATES LEGATION,
In Central America, Guatemala City, February 6, 1881.

THE COMMERCE OF GUATEMALA.

REPORT BY CONSUL TITUS.

I have just received a copy of the report of the secretaries of state to the national assembly of Guatemala, from which I take some items of interest from a commercial point of view.

I inclose, marked No. 1, a table showing the number of packages of goods imported during the year 1880, and the countries from which they were procured. From this it is seen that England is the most favored, the United States coming next.

Inclosure No. 2 is a classification of the articles imported, which shows that by far the most important item of all is that of cotton goods. There is no table showing the countries from which these different articles are derived, but I am informed by merchants here that fully nine-tenths of the cotton goods consumed in this market, come from England.

Inclosure No. 3 shows the articles exported from Guatemala, the countries to which they were shipped, and their values. From this it appears that considerably more than one-half of the entire exports go to the United States. A comparison of this table with No. 1 shows that the balance of trade with England is in favor of that country by about $200,000; while it is against the United States by more than $1,100,000.

The vessels touching at the ports of the Republic during the past year were as follows: On the Pacific coast the steam-vessels all belong to the Pacific Mail Steamship Company. This coast was visited by 36 sailing vessels; of which 13 were German, 13 French, 9 American, and 1 English. The only vessel under American colors which visited the Atlantic coast was the steamer Wanderer, making regular tri-weekly trips from New Orleans. The other vessels were 2 steamers and 6 schooners, all English.

The question as to the practicability of increasing the commerce of the United States with this country is an interesting one to our merchants, particularly those of San Francisco, who think that the trade of these countries by right belongs to them. Of the expedient now being agitated by the merchants of the latter-named city, viz, a reciprocity treaty providing for the free introduction of flour and hardware

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from the United States into this Republic, in exchange for the free introduction of Guatemala sugar into the United States, I am not inclined to think very favorably, for the following reasons: The census taken last year, after adding 15 per cent. for Indians who evaded the census, gives the entire population of the Republic as 1,400,000. Of these, much the greater portion are Indians, and of mixed blood, leaving probably only about 200,000 who ever use wheat flour, as the above-named classes use tortillas (corn-cakes) entirely. The consumption of flour would therefore be increased but very little by a removal of the duties; and as all of the flour used in the country comes from the United States, of necessity no benefit would accrue to our country from this source.

As to hardware, the consumption is by no means of formidable dimensions, as may be seen by reference to inclosure No. 2. I do not think the consumption would be increased in any considerable degree by a remission of the duties. The United States, at present, has a fair share of this trade, particularly in the finer classes of goods.

On the other hand, the advantages to this country would be immense. At present there is no market, except the home one, for the article of sugar, and as the quantity required is, of course, small, the industry is at present in a very depressed condition—the precipitation of which state of affairs was aided by the imposition, about two years ago, of a tax of four dollars a year, per acre, on the growing cane. The statistics show that during the last year one-third of the cane-fields of the Republic were abandoned. The natural result of this has been a scarcity and consequent high price of sugar, so that at present more cane is being planted. In the year 1879 the government removed the export duty on sugar, and decreed a bounty of 50 cents per quintal (100 pounds) on what might be exported, but this was insufficient to enable the growers to export with profit. With free export to the United States, however, there would be an immediate impulse given to this country, which would be particularly welcome to the agriculturists, on account of the decline of the coffee trade, and of which the government would, no doubt, take advantage by reimposing the export tax.

It appears to me that a much more equitable basis for a reciprocity treaty, in case such a measure is thought advisable, would be the article of cotton goods. As stated above, nearly the whole of this class of goods comes from England. The free admission of this article would give American manufacturers an opportunity to introduce their goods, and the reduction in price would enable the people of this country to buy a better class of goods than they are accustomed to use. One of the chief reasons why the importation of this class of goods from the United States is so small is that our manufacturers do not make a sufficiently cheap article for this market.

I think, however, that there would be very little hope of securing a treaty based on this article, as it produces about two-fifths of the total import duties; and as the latter furnish a little more than half of the entire revenues of the government, it results that one-fifth of its whole income is derived from the importation of cotton goods. Unless, therefore, the government could be made to see its way clearly to an immediate recovery of its revenue, it would probably be impossible to secure its consent.

FRANK H. TITUS,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Guatemala, C. A., March 28, 1881.

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Statement showing the imports of Guatemala during the year 1880.

Whence imported.	Packages.	Value.
England	36,964	$1,037,224 77
France	19,392	535,683 94
Germany	27,153	424,937 00
San Francisco, New York, New Orleans	125,726 / 16,656 / 1,735	502,955 26 / 141,591 43 / 11,307 00
China	293	74,539 78
Belgium	3,974	49,770 82
Salvador	587	47,859 18
Spain	4,898	46,987 91
Belize	6,964	40,594 56
Switzerland	223	25,168 39
Ecuador	1,963	22,705 66
Honduras	35	13,404 62
Japan	109	12,673 12
Chili	475	9,657 67
Cuba	351	8,294 65
Panama	745	7,380 58
Italy	534	6,084 31
Mexico	2,369	5,629 75
Peru	97	3,788 23
New Grenada	142	2,842 00
Nicaragua	94	2,471 43
Costa Rica	68	1,924 35
Total	240,947	3,035,536 85
Packing, commissions, insurance, and freights to the ports of Guatemala		611,894 55
Total value of importations, 1880		3,647,431 40

Classification of merchandise imported into Guatemala during 1880.

Articles.	Values.	Duties.
Olive oil	$6,287 45	$5,965 62
Brandy	18,608 31	19,028 55
Cotton, in thread and stuffs	928,352 19	804,959 63
Fire-arms	4,874 50	5,921 75
Boots and shoes	11,668 87	10,184 90
Cinnamon	16,393 66	14,876 64
Carriages	10,854 00	5,427 00
White wax	5,397 32	5,018 49
Beer	9,863 41	7,295 50
Canned fruits, preserves, &c	45,698 12	39,973 17
Glassware	19,729 37	18,590 20
Money and precious metals	598,357 50	
Miscellaneous	5,784 14	5,562 54
Drugs	38,250 28	34,346 31
Mirrors, large	3,873 27	3,679 60
Tin	2,453 45	2,337 94
Stearine, in candles and cake	21,729 30	19,164 58
Matches	3,186 94	4,259 77
Flour	209,817 75	213,174 00
Iron, in bars, plates, machetes, &c	47,359 62	45,829 79
Instruments useful in agriculture, arts, and sciences	9,275 48	927 54
Toys	1,418 56	1,347 63
Wool, in thread and stuffs	169,699 15	160,652 89
Printed books	10,329 84	1,499 00
Sweet liquors	6,174 25	6,883 50
Linen thread	58,961 78	51,117 36
Crockery	39,328 72	37,185 41
Corn	50,692 15	
Machinery	41,974 50	4,197 45
Medicines	46,589 65	44,260 16
Fine hardware	58,733 24	57,899 30
Furniture, wooden	8,941 96	8,494 86
Articles for schools, hospitals, &c	6,068 40	
Pianos	8,975 00	4,487 50
Tanned hides	21,584 29	18,961 19
Notions, fine	69,753 00	6,975 30
Hardware, utensils, &c	28,461 86	26,116 53
Watches	17,926 75	3,237 47
Ready-made clothing	5,392 25	6,095 36
Sacks, empty	54,639 20	45,410 42
Salt, common	7,961 00	11,358 50
Silk, in thread and stuffs	106,386 70	93,794 25

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Classification of merchandise imported into Guatemala during 1880—Continued.

Articles.	Values.	Duties.
Saddles	$3,971 00	$3,772 45
Hats	49,398 54	46,963 91
Tobacco, manufactured	1,207 87	1,894 50
Iron roofs and pipes	24,759 40	2,475 94
Wheat	38,632 11	21,687 18
Paper, all kinds	34,087 57	31,651 28
Perfumery	5,739 18	5,452 22
Window glass	5,897 35	5,639 63
Wine	33,561 65	32,252 51
Total	3,035,536 85	2,008,287 22

Guatemalan exports of 1880 and their destinations.

Articles.	Value per pound.	England.		France.		Germany.		New York.		San Francisco.		Other countries.		Total.	
		Quantities.	Values.	Quantities.	Values.	Quantities.	Values.	Quantities.	Values.	Quantities.	Values.	Quantities.	Values.	Quantities.	Values.
Indigo	$1 20	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,151	$2,581 20	2,151	$2,581 29
Sugar	10	62,867	$6,286 70	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	347,784	$34,778 40	.....	.....	410,651	41,065 10
Coffee	14	5,907,600	827,064 00	5,083,884	$711,743 76	5,822,202	$815,168 28	3,192,185	$446,905 90	8,143,421	1,140,078 94	826,975	115,776 50	28,976,267	4,056,677 38
Hides, ox	15	1,968	295 20	.....	.....	262,218	39,332 70	243,630	36,544 50	3,100	465 00	.....	.....	519,724	77,958 60
Hides, deer	30	200	60	.....	.....	.....	.....	11,321	3,396 30	.....	.....	.....	.....	11,521	3,456 30
Cacao	50	.....	.....	52	26 00	.....	.....	70	35 00	70	35 00	245	122 50	437	218 50
Cigarettes	1 50	.....	.....	.....	.....	3,217	4,825 50	.....	.....	32	48 00	.....	.....	3,576	5,364 00
Cochineal	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	443	221 50	27,013	13,506 50	9,898	4,949 00	11,435	5,717 50	48,789	24,394 50
Horns	2	.....	.....	.....	.....	5,145	102 90	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	5,145	102 90
Chocolate	1 00	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	30	30 00	.....	.....	167	167 00	197	197 00
Beans	5	.....	.....	153	7 65	500	25 00	150	7 50	.....	.....	.....	.....	803	40 15
Cattle, 40 head	*	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	800 00
Rubber	35	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	47,507	16,627 45	2,400	840 00	3,045	835 00	25,952	18,533 20
Miscellaneous	†	50	.....	930	.....	1,131	.....	5,182	.....	2,325	.....	19,894	.....	28,812	.....
Printed books	†	.....	.....	.....	.....	25	.....	.....	.....	74	.....	2,029	.....	2,128	.....
Plants	†	1,208	.....	.....	.....	90	.....	345	.....	.....	.....	305	.....	1,948	.....
Dried birds and insects.	†	100	.....	247	.....	22	.....	70	.....	40	.....	.....	.....	479	.....
Woolen clothes	1 40	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	34,192	47,868 80	34,192	47,868 80
Sarsaparilla	12	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	11,373	1,364 76	.....	.....	17,687	2,122 44	29,060	3,487 20
		5,971,993	833,705 90	5,085,286	711,777 41	6,094,993	859,615 88	3,538,876	518,417 91	8,509,144	1,181,194 34	.....	.....	30,128,832	4,282,744 83
Money	.....	.....	1,200 00	.....	15,553 50	.....	.....	.....	1,900 00	.....	74,702 45	.....	.....	.....	140,700 74
Fruits	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,891 00
Totals	.....	.....	834,905 90	.....	727,330 91	.....	859,615 88	.....	520,317 91	.....	1,255,896 79	.....	.....	.....	4,425,336 57

* $20 per head. † Unknown. ‡ 1891 cubic feet of timber equals 47 tons, at $40 per ton.

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WEST INDIES.

AMERICAN VS. EUROPEAN GOODS IN CUBA.

Until within a few years the requirements of the people in Cuba were generally met by the importation of goods of English make. Spain supplied some articles, and France gave her perfumery and *objets de vertu*. American goods were nowhere to be found; both wholesale and retail dealers were in profound ignorance of the fact that almost at their doors they had a producer of everything which the extended and raised wants of civilized life made necessary. The English and Germans here took good care to decry all American manufactures, and as the Spaniard is above all else a creature of custom and habit, preferring to follow in the course established by his ancestors, they found it no difficult task to continue the monopoly that existed. Circumstances seemed also to favor them. The inflation of prices in the United States, produced by the war, made it impossible to compete with the English in offering goods of any kind. The establishment of lines of Spanish steamers between Havana and Liverpool permitted the importation of merchandise at low rates of freight and at lower duties than could be done with American articles. The higher price of cost and the greater expenses attending the importation operated as an effective bar to American trade in the way of imports. The consequence was that our exports to Cuba rarely passed $15,000,000 per year, while our imports frequently exceeded $80,000,000; and the anomaly was presented of merchants going across the Atlantic, over 3,000 miles away, to get stock which they could readily obtain in New York, only one third of the distance. These causes still operate to lessen trade, and Europe still supplies Cuba with the bulk of her imports. There seems, however, to be more effort and willingness to draw from the United States, and it is not uncommon now to find American shoes and calicoes, and even Yankee notions. Certain articles of food have always been imported from the United States, such as lard, beans, bacon, hams, &c.; of these the United States are the exclusive exporters. Some flour and butter are also brought; live stock for consumption and breeding; machinery, locomotives, lumber, a few agricultural implements, all kinds of cooperage, and a little coal. The smaller articles comprised in a hardwareman's stock are, however, almost exclusively brought from England, so also with the clothing and dry-goods' stores. Some American calicoes (or percales), occasionally cotton shirting, &c., are found, but they are not common. The retail dealers admit the good quality of American prints, but frankly say that they cannot bring them here as long as the cost is greater than those of England. The causes of this have already been indicated, and until they are removed it is useless to hope for an increase in the trade with the United States. It seems not impossible that within a comparatively short time, changes of importance may occur. The Spanish Government is alive to the urgent necessity of doing something to alleviate the general distress here, and the proposed measures are numerous and varied. One proposal is, the abolition of what are called the differential flag duties, and at the same time a material reduction in the tariff duties.

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DISCRIMINATING DUTIES.

The differential flag duties, as in force to-day, are a very material and striking discrimination in favor of the Spanish flag. The removal of this, establishing a uniform duty for the goods of all nations, in whatever bottoms they may be imported, will at once put an end to the European monopoly by placing American goods on the same basis as others. In order to complete and perfect the reform, the United States would then have to remove the discrimination now made against goods imported there in Spanish bottoms, and as there would be a constant stream of Spanish vessels to the United States, the low rates of freight, which they are in the habit of charging, would be enjoyed by the American exporter, as they are now by the Europeans.

The ultra Spanish element is opposed to the abolition of discriminating duties, on the ground that it would work the destruction of the Spanish merchant marine, and at this moment there is a fierce discussion going on in the public press. It is useless to point out the arguments *pro* or *con*, as the government will probably be but little influenced by the opinion here.

Recognizing, as they do, the critical financial condition of the island, and the absolute necessity of applying a remedy, they will be compelled, during the present session of the Cortes, to adopt some healing measures.

AMERICAN PRODUCTIONS MOST IN DEMAND IN CUBA.

Agricultural implements.—Plows, cultivators, rakes, hoes, forks, coffee cleaners, machetes or cane knives, sausage-meat cutters, bagazo spreaders, sugar mills, portable railroads, sheep-shearers, corn-shellers, spades, and shovels.

Sugar-machines.—Mills, centrifugal apparatus, vacuum pans, stampers for hogsheads and box sugars, fire-brick.

Glassware.—Lamps for petroleum; goblets, tumblers, lightning-rod insulators, glass tubes, vases, and window panes.

Domestic utensils.—All sorts of hardware, such as pots, pans, cups, stoves, coffee and tea pots, sieves, mortars, and pestles, &c.; crockery, tubes, buckets, dippers, coffee and pepper mills.

Cutlery.—Knives, forks, spoons, carving knives, and potato knives.

Hardware.—All sorts of carpenters' and builders' tools, planing-machines, molding machines, machinery for making windows and shutters, hand drills or foot-power drills, turning and mortising machines, band saws, hand saws, chisels, scroll saws of the large kind, carving instruments, &c.; paints, especially fire-proof paints, putty, lubricating and paint oils.

Clothing.—Shirting, calicoes, lighter classes of woolen goods; shoes if made according to the Cuban pattern—sharp-points, high instep, and narrow; buttons, thread, linings &c.

Soaps.—The cheaper sorts, and small importations of fine.

Stationery of all sorts.

Locomotives and all sorts of railroad supplies.

Sewing-machines, hand and treadle.

GEORGE W. ROOSEVELT,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Matanzas, February 1, 1881.

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RETAIL AND WHOLESALE PRICES OF PROVISIONS AND DRY GOODS IN CUBA.

REPORT BY CONSUL ROOSEVELT, OF MATANZAS.

RETAIL PRICES OF PROVISIONS.

Flour: wheat, superfine, $38 to $40 per barrel; extra family, $35 per barrel.
Beef: fresh roasting pieces, 60 to 75 cents per pound; soup pieces, 55 cents per pound.
Veal: forequarters and hindquarters, 75 cents per pound; cutlets, $1 per pound.
Mutton: forequarters and leg, 55 cents per pound; chops, 60 cents per pound.
Pork: fresh, 55 cents per pound; corned or salted, 40 cents; bacon and ham, 65 cents per pound.
Lard: 38 and 40 cents per pound.
Codfish: dry, 20 cents per pound.
Salt fish: mackerel, hake, and haddock, 20 cents per pound.
Butter: $1 to $1.50 per pound, according to quality.
Cheese: $1 to $1.25 per pound.
Rice: 20 cents per pound.
Potatoes: $10 and $12 per barrel, paper.
Beans: 15 cents per quart.
Milk: 50 cents per gallon.
Eggs vary greatly, from 12 to 18 for $1.

RETAIL PRICES OF GROCERIES, &C.

Tea: Oolong or other good black, $2.50 per pound.
Coffee: green, 45 cents; roasted, $1 per pound.
Sugar: brown, 10 cents; white, 20 and 24 cents per pound.
Molasses: 30 cents per quart.
Soap: common, 12 cents; fine, $1 per cake.
Starch: 16 cents per pound.
Coal oil: $1 per gallon.
Coal: $7 and $8.50 per ton, gold.

RETAIL PRICES OF DOMESTIC DRY GOODS.

Shirtings: bleached, 25 and 30 cents per yard; unbleached, 20 and 25 cents per yard.
Sheetings, as known in the United States, *i. e.*, double width, are not brought here; cotton sheets are made of the single width of bleached shirting.
Woolen flannel: $1.75 per yard, good quality.
Prints: 25 and 30 cents per yard.
Mousseline de laines: 75 cents to $1 per yard.
Shoes: men's and women's, $8 to $10 per pair.

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HOUSE RENT.

House rent varies according to style and location. A small house of two or three rooms commands $25 per month in paper. A house of six or eight rooms, in a good locality, commands from $75 to $100, gold, per month.

DUTIES ON IMPORTS AND WHOLESALE QUOTATIONS.

(Besides the duties marked in this review, an addition of 25 per cent. is paid on all imported articles as war contribution. *All duties* are payable in Spanish gold.)

Apples: 2½ cents per kilo under the Spanish flag, and 3½ cents per kilo under foreign flag; quoted at $5 and $6 per barrel, gold.

Beans: duty, $2.15 per 100 kilos. quoted at 22 and 22½ reales per arrobe, paper.

Brooms: duty, $8 per 100 kilos.; quoted at $4½ to $8½ per dozen in paper, according to quality.

Butter: duty, $11.50 per 100 kilos.; quoted at $63 to $68 per cwt., paper, according to class and packages.

Candles: duty, $13 per kilos., composition and sperm; quoted at $28 and $29 per cwt., in paper.

Cheese: duty, $11.80 per 100 kilos. on Dutch, and on American $8.26 per kilos.; flat and round, quoted at $56 and $58 per cwt. in paper.

Chewing tobacco: duty, $14 per 100 kilos.; quoted at $51 and $55 per cwt., according to quality.

Clear pork: duty, $8.25 per 100 kilos.; quoted at $30 to $30½ per cwt. for ribs, and $31 for shoulders.

Coal oil: duty, $1.40 per 100 kilos.; quoted at 10 reales per arrobe, paper.

Crackers: duty, 4½ cents per kilogram; common classes quoted from 14 to 20 reales for small tins.

Salt fish: duty, $3.80 per 100 kilos.; quoted for cod, $14 per cwt. and $12 to $13 per cwt. for hake and haddock, paper.

Corn: duty, $1.40 per 100 kilos.; quoted at 10 reales per arrobe.

Flour: duty, from Spain in Spanish vessels, $2.25; for Spanish in foreign vessels, $4.50: from foreign countries in Spanish vessels, $4.62½; from foreign countries in foreign vessels, $5.51 per 100 kilos., including the weight of the barrel; quoted at $27½ to $28 per barrel and at $26½ in bags; American, from $30½ to 31 per barrel, and from $28½ to $29½ in bags, according to brands, paper.

Hams: duty, $8.35 per 100 kilos. for American,* and $19.30 for Westphalia, per 100 kilogs.; quoted at $30 and $40 for middling and good classes.

Hay: duty, $1 per 100 kilos.; quoted from $9.50 to $10 per American bale, paper.

Smoked herrings: duty, $2.45 per 100 kilos.; quoted at 7½ and 8 reales per box, paper.

Lard: duty, $9.75 per 100 kilos.; quoted at $34½ to $34¾ per cwt. in tierces; whole tins at $38 and $38½ per cwt.; halves and quarters at 39½ and $40 per cwt., paper.

Oats and bran: duty, per Spanish flag, 11 to 20 cents per 100 kilos., and per foreign, $1.40 per 100 kilos.; oats quoted at $6½ per bag; bran, at $5½ per bag, paper.

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* Although the consul has given the duty on American hams at $8.35 per 100 kilos., it evidently should be $18.35 per 100 kilos.

Onions: duty, $1.40 per 100 kilos.; quoted at $6½ per cwt. paper.

Oysters: duty, $24 per 100 kilos.; quoted at $11½ and $12 per box, paper.

Paper: duty, $3.80 per 100 kilos.; quoted, American straw yellow paper at 8¾ to 8⅞ reales per ream; Belgian, from 8 to 8¼ reales per ream; Manila, 10 to 10¼ reales per ream, paper.

Pickles: 16 1/10 cents per kilo.; quoted from $5 to $13 per box, according to quality and size of bottles, paper.

Potatoes: duty, $1.40 per 100 kilos.; quoted from $9 to $9.50 per barrel, paper.

Salt: duty, $2.37 per 100 kilogs. for fine, and $1.18 for coarse; quoted from $7.50 to $7.75 per 200 pounds.

Coals: duty, 60 cents per 1,000 kilogs.; quoted from $6½ to $7 per ton gold.

Lumber: duty, $6.40 per 1,000 superficial feet; quoted at $30 per M, gold, for white pine boards, and $30 to $30½ per M, gold, for pitch pine lumber.

GEORGE W. ROOSEVELT,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Matanzas, January 31, 1881.

LABOR IN CUBA.

REPORT BY CONSUL ROOSEVELT, OF MATANZAS.

There are in Cuba three classes of laborers, the negroes, Chinese, and whites. The first two are dedicated almost entirely to agriculture, and the latter to town industries. Owing to the operations of the Moret law, and to voluntary manumissions, the number of slaves has diminished greatly in recent years. The freed negroes usually remain in the country, and generally on the estates of their late masters. The Chinese now here were imported as laborers by several large companies, not now existing, under what was known as the contract system. They were bound before leaving China to work for eight years at $4.25 gold per month, and a condition was that at the expiration of that time they were to be returned to their native country. The government of the island of Cuba, however, in view of the scarcity of labor, determined that the Chinese should recontract or leave the country *at their own expense*, and as very few, after completing their eight years of servitude, were in condition to do this, the result was that they were forced into from four to six years of additional bondage. The treatment of the Chinese was so tyrannical that the Government of China was finally forced to prohibit exportations of laborers to Cuba, so that some years have passed since there has been any immigration whatever. The consequence is that nearly all the contracts now existing are on the point of expiring, and the freed coolies are being hired by planters at current prices.

The price paid for labor to negroes and Chinese varies to some extent, according to the locality. For the latter, from $12 to $15 per month, and for the former, from $15 to $20 per month. The maintenance of the laborers is at the charge of planters, and may be estimated at from 30 cents to 40 cents per day in gold. Their food consists of rice, jerked beef, sweet potatoes, corn, and plantains, with occasional rations on some estates of salt fish. The negro prefers corn meal, but to the Chinaman

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rice is indispensable. On nearly all estates the negroes are permitted also to have a pig, a few chickens, and a small patch of ground for planting. They never plant, however, anything but staple articles, such as corn and plantains. Garden vegetables are unknown to them, so that their life is a monotonous round of ill-requited labor and simple though substantial fare. Two suits of clothing during the year are deemed sufficient to cover their wants, and possibly they may be, for when at labor in the fields they are almost in nature's garb.

The quarters of the negroes and Chinese in Cuba is usually a large stone house, forming a long parallelogram, with one entrance. The interior is divided into two divisions, and the rooms are situated on the four sides of a large yard. The rooms open into this yard, and rarely have windows. One division is for the males, and one for the females; but as there is free communication between them there is practically no separation of the sexes. The rooms adjoining the entrance are usually large and well-lighted, with a balcony or porch in front. These are occupied by the "mayoral" or driver, who is the controller and immediate governor of the laborers; said driver assigns their tasks, administers correction, &c., under instructions from the administrator. One day in the week is given for rest and recreation, but not necessarily on Sunday. The owners of adjoining estates manage among themselves so that laborers of two plantations never are idle on the same day. They object to free intermingling, in order to prevent the intrigues, combinations, &c., which at one time frequently culminated in insurrections.

The recreations of the negroes are few and simple. They dance, sleep, and sun themselves; beyond this they have no amusement. They are called to labor at five o'clock in the morning, and have two intermissions during the day for meals, and at six o'clock in the evening they are back in the barracks locked up for the night—a life of unceasing toil, unalleviated by any domestic joys, without contact with the outer world; no interest, ties, or thoughts beyond the confines of the plantation, they plod on from childhood to death, and finally are buried in some neglected spot to become the bogeys and ghosts of superstitious fancies. Their lot of late has, however, been much ameliorated. The lash is practically abolished, and the interest of the owners compels them to be more lenient and less exacting. The total extinction of the slave trade has taken away the only sources of supply of labor, and though humanity be silent, selfishness induces a more careful preservation of the only labor existing. In former years a slave could readily treble his cost in five years, and as there was a constant entry of negroes, the planter could readily replenish his force. It was cheaper to work the slave to the verge of death than to preserve him carefully at a producing age. This is all past now, and sad as may seem to be the condition of the negro, it is immeasurably better than some twenty years ago.

I have spoken thus far only of the negro laborers and of the Chinese. Turning to the whites, I must say that few are found in the list of farm laborers. There are some, however, who are engaged in the same duties as the negroes. Their pay ranges from $17 to $20 per month, and supplied with rations similar in kind and quantity to that of the negroes. In the cities and small towns the whites are employed as cigar makers, carpenters, masons, clerks, coachmen, day laborers, and fishermen. The wages vary, and it is almost impossible to give more than an approximate estimate. Cigar makers are paid by the task, and these vary according to the size of the cigars, whether they be the small Concha or the large Imperiale; I think, however, that the daily earnings of a cigar

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maker would be from $2 to $3.50. Masons and carpenters earn from $3 to $3.50 per day; clerks in retail stores and shops from $12 for the new arrival to $40 for the trusted employé per month. Coachmen receive from $12 to $20 per month. The laboring 'longshoreman, &c., probably earns from $2 to $2.50 per day. House servants are almost exclusively colored, and their wages are more fixed. A cook receives from $20 to $25; maid-of-all-work, from $18 to $22; washerwoman, from $25 to $35 per month. Porters, who are generally peninsular Spaniards, earn usually about $34 to $40 per month, gold. All the previous amounts are understood to be paper or Spanish bank-notes, which to-day are at a large discount, the current rate of the premium on gold being 102 per cent.

GEORGE W. ROOSEVELT,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Matanzas, Cuba, February 1, 1881.

PRESENT CONDITION OF CUBA.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL HALL, OF HAVANA.

I have the honor to transmit herewith a copy and translation of a letter that first appeared in the Spanish newspaper Las Novedades, of New York, on the 16th instant, and is republished in the El Triunfo of this place of to day. The writer, Mr. José Silverio Jorrin, is a native of Cuba; he left the island in 1869 for political reasons, and has since resided in Europe. In the first Cuban elections for the Spanish Cortes, 1879, he was elected a senator from the province of Puerto Principe. His first visit to Cuba in twelve years was a few months ago, and upon his return to Spain, via New York, he published in the latter place this letter, in which are expressed his opinions upon the present social, political, agricultural, and economical situation of the island.

As regards the social question, he appears to be satisfied that the process of emancipation is going on successfully; he observes also many improvements in the interior administration of plantations, and in the machinery, apparatus, and methods for manufacturing sugar—all of comparatively recent introduction. In other respects he finds the situation of the island deplorable, and he calls upon the Government of Spain to apply the remedy immediately, otherwise he believes its material prosperity and civilization will disappear forever.

The importance given to the dependence of Cuba upon the United States, the only remaining market for her principal staple, is worthy of attention, as are the fears expressed that the development of sugar production in the United States will, at no distant day, complete the ruin of the material interests of the island, and the measures he recommends that are to annihilate effectually the threatened competitive production before it shall have acquired great proportions. He suggests to the Government of Spain not to waste its time and diplomatic prestige in attempting to negotiate a treaty of commercial reciprocity with the United States; on the other hand, he recommends, substantially, the discontinuance of the present discriminating duties existing in Cuba, an assimilation of its tariff with that of Spain, a reduction of customs imposts and other measures tending to reduce the cost of production on

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Cuban plantations, and, consequently, the price of the sugar to the consumer in the United States.

The financial distress which now afflicts the agricultural and economical interest of Cuba, to which allusion is made in Mr. Jorrin's letter, cannot be attributed altogether to the late insurrection; it is, beyond a doubt, due principally to the results of the past twenty years' rule, under the old colonial system, which Spain, notwithstanding its completely changed commercial dependence, still attempts to maintain in Cuba, making this island the pivotal point of a commercial system having for its aim the protection, at the expense of Cuba, of Spanish agricultural, manufacturing, and shipping interests, and, through the interposition of a discriminating tariff, compelling her, while depending solely upon the United States as the only important market for her exports, to purchase her imports in Spain or in countries from whence they can be brought to the island in Spanish vessels.

Were Spain able to furnish a national market to Cuba, a discriminating tariff would be possible; because the protection here intended would be reciprocal, and it would act equally on production and consumption through her whole commercial system; the result would be similar to the protective system of the United States, by which Louisiana sells and buys in the Union. But, with Spain and Cuba, the case is not parallel; for Spain, at the utmost, does not to-day consume more than 5 or 6 per cent. of Cuba's products, leaving the balance to be sold in foreign markets, of which the United States takes nearly the whole.

Cuba has, therefore, become commercially a dependency of the United States, while still remaining a political dependency of Spain; the economical necessities of the island attract her towards the United States, while the origin, language, customs, religion, and traditions of her people enforce her political ties towards Spain. This conflict between material necessity and sentiment is probably the principal cause of the distress now prevailing in Cuba, and it requires but little foresight to perceive that this conflict must terminate either in complete commercial assimilation with the United States, or, as Mr. Jorrin predicts, in the ruin of her material interests and disappearance of her civilization.

HENRY C. HALL,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Havana, February 24, 1881.

SENATOR JORRIN'S LETTER.

NEW YORK, *February* 8, 1881.

To J. G. R. *Senator of the Kingdom, Madrid:*

MY DEAR FRIEND: I have received your kind letter of the 5th ultimo, and it has given me a grateful impression. I have fully realized your wishes for my joy upon visiting again my native soil. My countrymen were pleased to bestow upon me unmistakable proofs of affection and esteem, for which I thank them with a full heart. Behind these personal gratifications I have been saddened by considerations of the most transcendent importance, of greater interest to no one than to the representatives of Cuba, in the event it should be deemed expedient to submit them to the wisdom of the Cortes.

I have been a witness in my country of the energetic activity displayed by planters in reconstructing the sinking prosperity of the island; I have admired the transformations our plantations have undergone in their interior organizations, thanks to the intelligence of their owners, who have been able to realize that those who were slaves ten months ago now work voluntarily, and with less fatigue than the European operative. I have expressed the most lively pleasure in seeing realized the predictions

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I made in the senate, that the negroes, upon obtaining their freedom, would not disband, nor would they surrender themselves to idleness. I have witnessed in the country the monthly payments of their wages, the joy with which they received them, and the practical good sense of the patrons in this respect, in going beyond the limit of the letter of the law compensating each one, without reference to age or conditions, who knows how to be useful. I have contemplated the great scientific industrial wave that is rapidly submerging into the depths of oblivion our ancient agricultural routines. In a word, my spirit has expanded in visiting many sugar plantations, because I have seen them more orderly and tranquil than ever, notwithstanding the suppression of the former means of coercion, and only under the influence of the remuneration the freedman receives for his labor, and the affection he entertains for the family, as well as for the land where he has lived during long years. More than this, the radical innovations are not limited in Cuba to what is called *rural* economy.

In manufacturing, other parallel innovations of great importance have been carried out. Not only have there been adopted and are now being adopted the best methods and apparatus in use abroad for the manufacture of sugar, but the planters, comprehending the evils of absenteeism, have decided to remain the greater part of the year on their estates assiduously studying and developing, under the double point of view of theory and practice, whatever science and industry recommend for manufacturing well, rapidly, and as cheaply as possible.

But what purpose do these gigantic efforts serve if they are to be counteracted by obstacles that the public powers should remove? In the midst of the ruins of the ancient mode of social life of Cuba; after a civil war of twelve years, which has left her exhausted in resources and with an enormous debt of $85,000,000 that will soon be doubled if it is not liquidated; when in the present short period of transition the small and medium sized plantations are absorbed by the whirlpool of colossal factories, in this way, concentrating the territorial wealth into a very few hands, and prostrating in deep misery those who were before well-to-do tenants; when through this sudden evolution surges a genuine feudalism, at war with sound economic principles and with the highest interests of the state, the latter as a wise provisor, aware of the gravity of the circumstances and with a full knowledge that in Cuba it is responsible for everything, for the reason that there it is omnipotent in everything, is under the peremptory and unavoidable duty of applying an immediate and heroic remedy to the situation; otherwise the material prosperity of the island will forever disappear. But in what does the remedy consist?

In commencing at once to extend to Cuba the tariff now in force between the United States and Spain, to attempt to base this measure upon a treaty of commercial reciprocity, between the two nations, would be its postponement until the Greek kalends. I have proof that upon this point the secretary of foreign relations has answered, categorically, the minister of Spain at Washington, that for the present the government of this republic does not find it expedient to modify its protectionist commercial policy. It is said, on the other hand, that any tariff innovations negotiated between the cabinet of Madrid and the White House would implicate the celebration of like conventions with other nations, and especially with France, which has been for several years making efforts to obtain it. Finally, Spanish diplomacy would waste its prestige if it should insist upon terms that come in direct contact with one of the constitutive articles of the political creed, or, in other words, the platform of the Republican party, now in power, that serves as a banner against their adversaries, the Democrats.

This government must be made to play its hand by a different method; it is obliged, according to legislative acts, to discontinue in its custom-house the collection of duties imposed as reprisals when the motives therefor have ceased in the country that caused them. Of this we had a proof in 1875, *sic* (?) the year in which the governor-general of Cuba reduced the import duties upon flour and other American merchandise; our sugars and tobacco were at once admitted into New York with an equivalent reduction. Some may argue that the relief will not be sufficient to raise up the Cuban production; but let it be noted that although our programme embraces other essential modifications, the one above referred to, besides facilitating our commercial relations with an immense territory, would cheapen the cost of production in our Antillian plantations and the price of their sugars in the United States, with which would be obtained the retardation of the favorite project of producing here all the sugar that is now supplied from abroad.

It should be noted that this project is the Gordian knot of the salvation or of the ruin of Cuba, admitting for a moment the absurd hypothesis that the plantations of Andalusia should disappear and that the sugars of the Philippines and Puerto Rico should not be admitted into the Peninsula, in order to permit the exclusive entrance to those of Cuba under coasting law, the result would be (inasmuch as Spain consumes annually not more than 70,000,000 kilograms, and the crops of the Great Antilla being upwards of 700,000,000) that the peninsular market would receive the modest fraction of 10 per cent. only. Let us carry out these suppositions to the utmost; we

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will suppose that other 70,000,000 kilograms of refining sugars for re-exportations be sent to the peninsula, even then the island would have disposed of but 20 per cent. of its production, leaving 80 per cent. without a purchaser. We say without a purchaser, because the danger that Cuba may lose the custom of 50,000,000 of consumers that live at our doors is very imminent and very serious. In his recent farewell message the President manifested to his nation, that by 1884 he believed that his country would not need sugars of foreign production. When from such a high position assertions of this nature are emitted it would be madness to treat them lightly.

The idea is in full accord with the economic system that to-day prevails among the governing classes of this republic who are anxious to develop by every means the national production. For this they have the vast continent they occupy, and special circumstances that Prince Bismarck has not in wishing to imitate them in Germany.

However great may be the surprise caused by the official assertion that in the American Union foreign sugars will soon be substituted by those produced within its boundaries, few are ignorant of the fact that the Commissioner of Agriculture in Washington, and, singularly, public opinion and private enterprise are behind him at work upon this problem.

The commission sent to the Paris Exposition in 1878 studied thoroughly the manufacture of beet sugar in Europe; it reported in favorable terms upon the acclimatation of that industry in the United States, and remitted considerable quantities of the roots to be distributed among cultivators. The corollary of these antecedents have been the public discussions as the greatest profit to be obtained from an acre of land planted with beets compared with corn or other cultivation; the topographical designation of the districts to be preferred for that purpose, and the establishment by way of experiment in the vicinity of Portland of a manufactory that has already elaborated three crops of respectable quantities.

There has also appeared recently the memoir of several capitalists and land surveyors in regard to the facility of draining the extreme southern part of Florida, which latitude is visited by neither snows nor frosts, and where the orange tree flourishes as in Valencia. If in that perimeter of many square leagues the sugar cane grows and develops with the same luxuriance as in Cuba, as the informants report, our future rivals will improve, to our detriment, its great natural advantages in regard to sugar cane as compared with the beet root.

Optimists, by profession, perhaps may qualify as exaggerated the risks to which we have alluded. They forget, without doubt, among other historic examples, what happened in France during the continental blockade. It was considered impossible she could ever again have the sugar needed for her consumption until Chapral found the means before then unknown.

Will Anglo-Americans, among whom inventive genius predominates, together with their ample capital, and a superabundance of speculative spirit, do less?

The combination of these three powerful factors will develop results irremediably disastrous to the Great Antilla, if Spain does not hasten to arrest it, killing with a sure and sudden blow the cause that now keeps them in movement, and which is simply the prospective profit arising from the difference between the present price of Cuban sugars and the lowest price they expect to sell those of their own production.

All artificial obstacles between Cuba and the United States should be made to disappear immediately, by the integral application of the existing tariff between that republic and the peninsula.

Declare to be coasting trade (cobotage) the traffic between the Spanish provinces on both sides of the Atlantic.

Recognize as *national* the debt, which by an aggravating anomaly, weighs exclusively upon Cuba.

Let the ordinary and extraordinary estimates for the land and naval forces that garrison the island be made a charge upon the nation, as justice loudly demands.

Let severe measures be adopted which, if they do not suffice to exterminate will at least restrain the fast-increasing immorality that in Cuba devours a great part of her public resources.

To these five capital points the Antillian representatives should, in my humble opinion, confine their labors during the present legislature.

Will the president of the council of ministers turn a deaf ear for the second time? Will he again establish in the Cuban estimates his own fatidical *non possumeus*? It does not appear to me probable. I will go further, although I may be accused of simplicity; I consider it impossible.

The economic situation has changed fundamentally, in the colonies. The deficit between expenditures and revenues is unfortunately a positive fact that opens no field for false illusions. No one has any faith in palliative remedies. Cuba trembles before the formidable menace of losing the market which consumes three-fourths of her products, and she knows that only through measures of the Madrid cabinet, even more decided than those we have noted, can she prevent the disappearance of her sugars and with them that of her welfare and civilization.

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Mr. Cánovas de Castillo, by virtue of his great qualities of statemanship, will comprehend that the moment has arrived to display them in all their amplitude. And we entertain the hope that under the impulse of his characteristic energy and of his ardent patriotism, he will know how to rise above the clamor of those who would place certain provincial interests before the general interests of the nation, and that he will save Cuba, thus meriting from all of Spain the pure and enviable glory that Robert Peel reached to in England.

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JOSÉ SILVERIO JORRIN.

AMERICAN TRADE AT CAPE HAYTIEN.

REPORT BY CONSUL GOUTIER.

I have the honor to inclose the following report for quarter ending December 31, 1880:

The imports from the United States amounted to $250,882.01, exclusive of $10,739 in specie; while the exports, consisting of logwood, 14,895,520 pounds; coffee, 327,320 pounds; hides, 14,640 pounds; honey, 840 gallons; old metal, 1,928 pounds; peppers, 154½ barrels; and tortoise shell, 27½ pounds, amounted to $181,453.83.

The garden patches as well as the rice-fields have been greatly neglected of late years; hence we find among the imports, flour, 8,856 barrels, 3,581 half barrels, and 3,091 quarter barrels; rice, 301,110 pounds, and corn-meal 80 barrels. The country people in this neighborhood abandon their fields for the purpose of cutting logwood.

General Salomon is, without doubt, the most able, the most eminently fitted of the thirteen Presidents of Hayti, and can more fully realize, the importance of the agricultural interest of this country than any of his predecessors. He has detached the department of agriculture from that of the interior, and appointed General F. D. Legitime, a young man of marked ability, as minister of agriculture. Already in his plan of agricultural administration, submitted to the President, he has shown that he fully understands the difficult mission intrusted to his ability and patriotism, and that not only has he at heart the agricultural interest of Hayti, but that he will exert himself to the utmost to revive and promote it.

General F. D. Legitime, in his preface, speaking of the United States, says:

What a rich and wonderful nation is the United States of America! she that offers to-day to the surprised world the unprecedented example of a real plethora by the superabundance of her production.

A few barrels of sugar have been made in this vicinity, as a trial. It remains to be seen whether it will be continued.

STANISLAS GOUTIER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Cape Haytien, March 1, 1881.

SOUTH AMERICA.

THE EXPORTS TO THE UNITED STATES FROM THE RIVER PLATE.

REPORT BY CONSUL BAKER, OF BUENOS AYRES.

The River Plate, as that part of South America drained by the Rio de la Plata is familiarly called, embraces the countries of Uruguay, Paraguay, and the Argentine Republic. Montevideo and Paysandu in Uruguay, and Buenos Ayres and Rosario in the Argentine Republic, are the only ports in the River Plate from which shipments are made to the United States. There are no direct shipments from Paraguay. Whatever comes from that country is brought down the river in coasting vessels and is credited to either Uruguay or the Argentine Republic. That the total amount of shipments from the River Plate to the United States may be seen at a glance, I have taken occasion to compile a table which gives the declared exports from each one of the above-named ports for the year 1880, those of Rosario, Paysandu, and Montevideo having been courteously furnished to me by the United States consuls at those places, respectively. The table is as follows:

Shipments from the River Plate to the United States during the year 1880.

Articles.	Republic of Uruguay.		Argentine Republic.		Total.
	Montevideo.	Paysandu.	Buenos Ayres.	Rosario.	
Dry ox and cow hides...number..	976,539	8,000	889,655	37,829	1,912,032
Salt ox and cow hides....do....	.....	.....	4,051	219	4,270
Dry horse hides.....do....	.....	.....	4,468	.....	4,468
Salt horse hides.....do....	.....	.....	1,922	.....	1,922
Wool.....bales..	10,691	115	2,709	8,978	21,844
Sheep skins.....no....	3	.....	129	.....	132
Horse hair.....do....	688	10	1,150	517	2,345
Ostrich feathers.....cases..	24	.....	207	12	243
Goat skins.....bales.	1	.....	414	1,107	1,522
Nutria skins.....do....	19	.....	772	.....	791
Stag skins.....number..	.....	.....	3,684	.....	3,684
Carpincho skins.....do....	.....	.....	37,084	.....	37,084
Do.....bales..	1	.....	4	.....	5
Hide cutting.....do....	446	.....	156	166	602
Calf skins.....do....	21	.....	11	.....	32
Deer skins.....number..	399	.....	.....	.....	399
Do.....bales..	1	.....	11	22	34
Rags.....do....	36	.....	289	.....	347
Horns.....number..	6,854	31,000	48,450	.....	86,354
Bones.....tons..	94	5,067	23	95	5,184
Iron, old.....do....	575	.....	2,688	.....	3,263
Iron nails.....number..	1,146	.....	1,723	.....	2,869
Iron, scrap.....tons..	220	.....	.....	.....	220
Paths.....do....	12,870	.....	.....	.....	12,870
Broken glass.....barrels..	35	.....	.....	.....	35
Cat materials.....cases..	6	.....	.....	.....	6
Chinchilla skins.....boxes.	1	.....	.....	.....	2
Guano.....tons..	.....	11	.....	1	11
Walnuts.....bags..	.....	.....	.....	.....	20
Goats' hair.....bales..	.....	.....	.....	20	4
Whale oil.....casks..	400	.....	.....	4	400
Whale bone.....packages..	195	.....	.....	.....	195
Seal skins.....casks..	5	.....	.....	.....	5
Slush.....do....	2	.....	.....	.....	2
Orange peel.....boxes..	.....	.....	29	.....	29
Taborandi leaves.....packages..	.....	.....	46	.....	46
Medicinal bark.....do....	.....	.....	1	.....	1
Essential oils.....cases..	.....	.....	2	.....	2
Printing paper.....do....	.....	.....	48	.....	48
Printing ink.....do....	.....	.....	18	.....	18
Bone ash.....tons..	1,445	.....	.....	.....	1,445
Raisins.....boxes..	.....	.....	.....	1	1
Value.....	$5,314,396 62	$142,294	$4,257,706 35	$1,736,462 72	.....
	142,294 00	.....	1,736,462 72	.....	.....
Total value.....	5,456,891 62	.....	5,994,169 07	.....	$11,451,060 69

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From this table it will be seen:

1st. That the value of the exports from the entire River Plate to the United States in 1880 reached the sum of only $11,451,060.69.

2d. That these exports consisted almost entirely of wool, hides, and skins.

3d. That the exports from Montevideo exceeded those from Buenos Ayres by $1,056,891.27.

4th. That the total exports from the Argentine Republic exceeded those from Uruguay by only $537,275.44.

This may be explained in part by three well-known facts, to wit:

1. During the year 1880 there was a marked difference in the price of fine wools in the Argentine Republic and Uruguay, those of the latter country ruling much lower in the market than those of the former, and making it almost impossible to ship any but carpet wools to the United States from the Argentine Republic on account of our high tariff on other classes. The shipments of wool from Rosario were exclusively carpet wools.

2. There is a great preference in the United States for Montevidean hides on account of the better condition in which they are prepared for market.

In Uruguay great care is taken in removing the hides from the animals, while Buenos Ayrean hides have become quite notorious for the slips, cuts, and stabs which the reckless carelessness of the *gauchos* inflicts upon them. The result is that orders from the United States are now in great part going to Montevideo to be filled.

3. The third reason which may be mentioned for the smaller amount of shipments from the Argentine Republic during the year 1880 is the fact that for several months the country was convulsed by internal commotion and civil war, which resulted in the blockade of Buenos Ayres and the closing of its port during the months of June and July, and which disturbed its trade for some time afterwards.

E. L. BAKER,
United States Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Buenos Ayres, February 23, 1881.

THE DECLINE OF THE COFFEE INDUSTRY OF VENEZUELA.

REPORT BY COMMERCIAL AGENT PLUMACHER, OF MARACAIBO.

Referring to my dispatch, No. 67, of the 7th of January last, relating to the coffee trade of this consular district for the year 1880, I take the liberty of adding a few remarks as to one of the prime reasons for the low price of Venezuelan coffee in foreign countries, notwithstanding its excellent quality. It is quite common to hear it said in this country that the large Brazilian crops so fill the markets that prices must naturally be reduced, but it is a fact that the Brazilian planters and merchants have not suffered so much from low valuations as the people of this section. The reason is simple, and is admitted by every one who has given serious thought to the subject, and has even been ventilated in the periodicals, though with but little effect.

The coffee of Brazil is by no means superior to that of this country, and yet it commands a higher price in foreign markets, owing to the greater care taken in preparing it for exportation. Here, generally speaking, the fault commences in the irregular and careless harvesting of the crop, resulting in a mixture of withered, decayed, green, and ripe

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berries, differing in color and size, all heaped together, with little or no effort made at sorting or separation. The drying in most instances is then done by spreading the coffee upon the bare earth, at the conclusion of which operation a good proportion of small stones, dirt, and other foreign substances is gathered up with the coffee, which is thus sent to market, where it is readily sold, as there is much competition among the various buyers.

The producer, who, as a rule, works on a small scale, there being but few large plantations, has no incentive to take pains to pick and clean the coffee properly, it being, indeed, a saying among these small agriculturists that "good or bad, clean or dirty, it sells all the same." The fault, then, is clearly not with the producers, who naturally make all they can from their crops, but with the buyers, who, either in the coffee regions or at the ports of embarkation, allow such a slovenly system to exist. The apparent reason for this is the competition, which at times is very great among the buyers, especially as many houses *advance* funds to coffee planters in the interior, and in order to protect themselves their agents at the time of harvest must be on the alert.

While Brazil is importing machinery, and even manufacturing it, for the better preparation of her coffee for exportation, Venezuela, and particularly the western portion, is at a standstill or worse; and while in some localities of this section care is exercised in the gathering and preparing of this important product, the quantity thus treated is proportionately very limited. Another drawback is the want of roads. Cheap and easy means of communication are pressing necessities, as will be seen from the following statement of carrying expenses.

From the city of Merido (a great coffee center) to Maracaibo, the cost of transportation per each quintal (100 pounds) is $4.60 United States gold; and as the price paid at this port is now $8.80, more or less, there is but little profit left for the producer, as the estimated cost of cultivation is from $3 to $4 per quintal. In fact, many persons in the agricultural districts have become so discouraged that they are cutting down their coffee trees and planting other crops; and as the tree requires five years of growth, with constant, careful attention, before giving a profitable yield, it is evident that the growers must consider it a desperate case when they deliberately sacrifice the results of so much labor. In this connection I beg to translate from a leading periodical of the city of Merido, where the coffee interest is paramount:

The last frightful and unforeseen fall in the price of coffee, the principal source of wealth in the Cordillera, has filled with dismay the timid agriculturist: and to-day he considers as badly employed the grounds occupied by his coffee plants. The disheartenment is general among the coffee-growers, and this is so unfortunately true that in our fields one frequently hears the jarring sound of the ax felling entire plantations of this valuable tree to make room for cane or other products. Many of these plantations that we have seen are of such recent establishment that they have scarcely yielded their first or second crop. This is the history of what is owing to human inconstancy. When the price of coffee rises, they destroy the cane fields and plow up the pastures in order to plant coffee; and when it falls, they destroy the coffee to plant cane, and form pastures anew. But as for the maturing of every plant time is necessary, it must happen that another fall will take place when it arrives at maturity, owing to the unforeseen increase in its production. To-day they are destroying coffee plantations in order to make cane fields, the agriculturist being stimulated by the present value of *papelon* sugar and the low price of coffee. Within a year, and perhaps before, the price of papelon will have fallen so much as not to cover the expenses of its cultivation, and the agriculturist will then find himself in the dilemma of having lost a coffee plantation in order to plant cane, and of having a sugar plantation that he will be obliged to abandon on account of its failure to pay expenses.

Why, then, destroy a coffee plantation, the forming of which has cost so much anxiety and care? By this destruction the owner loses its standing value; the State is also a loser in territorial wealth; the coin in circulation is diminished by the value

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of the crops it ceases to produce, and the owner loses also the money expended in cutting down the trees to prepare for a new industry.

Would it not be more economical to allow the coffee plantations to remain quietly unmolested while waiting for an improvement in prices, and to sow in the meantime, on other lands, even if it should be necessary to rent them, whatever products may be of most value?

To resolve to destroy what has cost so much, to destroy a tree that needs five years for its proper development, must require a great effort, yet notwithstanding we are seeing entire plantations falling to the earth under the stroke of the ruthless ax.

The foregoing extract vividly shows the utter discouragement existing among the small coffee growers; and there can be no amelioration of their condition until they and the buyers fully appreciate the necessity of sending to foreign markets coffee properly harvested and cleaned, and sorted with a due regard to quality and size. Were these considerations properly fulfilled, there would soon be a more cheerful outlook.

E. H. PLUMACHER,
Commercial Agent.

UNITED STATES COMMERCIAL AGENCY,
Maracaibo, March 9, 1881.

CONTINENT OF ASIA.

SHIPMENT OF AMERICAN COTTONS VIA THE SUEZ CANAL AND PANAMA ROUTES.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL DENNY, OF SHANGHAI.

Heretofore some of our cotton goods arriving by way of London and Suez came in a damaged condition, which is alleged to be due to defective packing. There is, however, good reason to doubt this, and to attribute the damage to rough handling and improper stowage of the bales.

On the 22d of October last the first invoice of cottons arrived in Shanghai from New York via Panama, San Francisco, and Yokohama. Since that time more of these goods have arrived by this route than via Suez, and in perfect condition, the bales looking comparatively clean, while most of those shipped by the other route looked as though they had been stowed in the coal bunkers, black and dirty in appearance.

The shipments of piece goods by the way of Panama and San Francisco up to the first of this month are as follows:

Drills	63,575	pieces, equal to bales	4,238
Sheetings	108,315	pieces, equal to bales	5,415
Jeans	12,400	pieces, equal to bales	620
Total	184,290	pieces, equal to bales	10,273

are in round numbers, say 2,000 tons of 40 cubic feet.

The following comparative table will show the monthly importations by the two routes since October last, namely:

Months.	Via Panama.	Via England and Suez.
	Pieces.	*Pieces.*
October	18,625	45,251
November	58,810	48,180
December	15,000	11,625
January	43,050	1,250
February	48,805	38,030
Total	184,290	144,336

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It will be seen from the foregoing that the Panama route is rapidly gaining in favor.

The freight tariff by this route equals 45 to 47 shillings per ton of 40 cubic feet, while by the way of England and the Suez Canal 55 shillings is the lowest rate, while the average is considerably above this figure. The time occupied by the two routes is about the same, viz, from two to two and one-half months; but in view of the cost of freight and care which is taken in transshipment, the advantages to our merchants are decidedly greater by the Panama route, notwithstanding there are more reshipments by this route than by the Suez. These, however, will be lessened, as well as the expense, when a canal is completed across the Isthmus of Panama. In the meantime the United States, in view of the importance of the future of this trade, should encourage and protect in every possible way its present interest in it.

While the nation is comparatively in its youth, and capitalists find investments at home which are both safe and profitable, it should be borne in mind that this will not always be the case; for the rapidity with which the vast resources of America are being developed there will come a time, and at no distant day, when our capital, like that of England, for example, will seek investment elsewhere. Then will be fully realized the importance of a zealous watchfulness over the growing commercial interests we have in this quarter. Congress could greatly stimulate it now by granting a liberal subsidy to a line of steamers direct from San Francisco to Shanghai by the way of Yokohama, Japan, carrying all freights from New York, via Panama, destined for the East, and carrying the United States mail as well. Such a policy would not only give us increased commercial advantages in China, but increased postal facilities also, thereby avoiding the frequent delays at Yokohama of from 4 to 6 days, as is now the case whenever the mail arrives by an occidental and oriential steamer.

O. N. DENNY,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Shanghai, March 18, 1881.

AMERICAN AND ENGLISH TRADE AT AMOY.

REPORT BY CONSUL GOLDSBOROUGH.

In regard to American trade with this port I beg to state that the total net quantity of American cotton goods of various denominations imported via Hong-Kong, &c., into this port during the year 1880 was 21,128 pieces, representing a value of 31,188 taels (one Hai-Kwan tael is equivalent to $1.54), while that of the year 1879 was 15,164 pieces, valued at 20,436 taels, thus showing an increase over the preceding year of 5,904 pieces, valued at 10,752 taels.

The importations of cotton goods of all descriptions from the United States and other foreign countries during the year 1880 amounted to 208,065 pieces, exceeding the deliveries during the year 1879 by 18,884 pieces, and forming decidedly a meager showing, considering the vast area of country to be supplied.

The total quantity of British piece goods imported during the year 1880 was 66,378 pieces, valued at 105,230 taels, against 57,069 pieces, valued at 80,003 taels, imported in 1879.

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In connection with cotton goods, quicksilver, flour, ginseng, and kerosene oil were imported into this port, via Hong-Kong, &c., from the United States, to the value of 48,035 taels in 1880, against 52,909 taels during the same period in 1879, showing a decrease of 4,874 taels.

Except opium, the foreign merchants of Amoy, to evade the likin tax (local or war tax), have, during the last five or six years, been in the habit of sending their commodities to the interior under transit passes, as provided for by treaties.

I am told that in years past the efforts of foreign merchants to send goods in transitu were rendered useless by the tyrannical measures of the local mandarins, who privately threatened to shut up the business houses of the native merchants buying goods thus introduced, and confiscate the same, did they resort to such measures.

At this port the mandarins have entire control over the likin tax, which is exacted on all articles not protected by transit passes. This tax, I am credibly informed, is in some instances more than double the amount of the tariff prescribed upon foreign goods in the treaties with China.

In Swatow, the port next below this, the populace resisted the imposition of the likin tax by force of arms, and consequently opium is the only article on which said tax is levied there, and pays $15.40 (10 taels) per chest, while at Amoy 128 taels is the impost.

The unhealthy state of the trade at Amoy is attributable, to a greater or less extent, to the likin tax being heavier in the neighborhood of this port than that generally found existing elsewhere along the coast, which operates in favor of the latter and prevents the trade of this port from expanding.

Herewith will be found a table showing quantity and value of gross total cotton piece goods of all kinds imported in 1879 and 1880, a statement of quantity and value of imports, via Hong-Kong, &c., of American origin, in 1879 and 1880, and a table of figures showing the increase of quotations of Formosa and locally-grown tea leaf during the season 1880–'81, as compared with season 1879–'80, which I trust will prove of interest.

W. ELWELL GOLDSBOROUGH,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Amoy, March 26, 1881.

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Statement of quantity and value of imports (via Hong-Kong, &c.) of American origin in 1879 and 1880 at Amoy.

Description.	1879.						1880.					
	Foreign countries.		Hong-Kong.		Chinese ports.		Foreign countries.		Hong-Kong.		Chinese ports.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
		H. K. taels.		*H. K. taels.*		*H. K. taels.*		*H. K. taels.*		*H. K. taels.*		*H. K. taels.*
Cotton:												
Drills ..... pieces..	60	106	2,693	5,152	450	800	32	64	3,847	7,594	154	308
T-cloths ..... do...	.....	.....	10,420	10,212	.....	.....	6,100	5,978	6,979	6,839	250	245
Sheetings ..... do....	22	60	19	46	1,500	4,050	59	152	27	72	3,680	9,936
Total cotton	82	166	13,132	15,410	1,950	4,800	6,191	6,194	10,853	14,505	4,084	10,489
Metal:												
Quicksilver ..... piculs..	11.25	450	503.89	20,880	.....	.....	14.34	645	397.73	17,722	.....	.....
Flour ..... do...	1,687.46	4,214	4,693.09	11,427	.....	.....	.....	.....	4,138.05	8,286	.....	.....
Ginsong, clarified ..... do ..	.....	.....	50.38	20,838	.....	.....	.....	.....	23.43	11,339	.....	.....
crude ..... do ..	.....	.....	4.33	999	.....	.....	.....	.....	38.74	10,073	.....	.....
cutting ..... do....	.....	.....	31.20	835	.....	.....	.....	.....	22.59	625	.....	.....
Oil, kerosene ..... gallons..	.....	.....	6,480	1,450	11,500	1,480	1,630	326	110	10	.....	.....
Total	.....	4,830	.....	66,839	.....	6,340	.....	7,165	.....	62,540	.....	10,489

Totals for 1879, H. K. taels, 78,009; for 1880, H. K. taels, 80,194.

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IMPORTS.

AMERICAN COTTONS.

Year.	Drills.		T-cloths.		Sheetings.		Total.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
		H.K.taels.		*H.K.taels.*		*H.K.taels.*		*H.K.taels.*
1879	3,203	6,068	10,420	10,212	1,541	4,156	15,164	20,436
1880	4,033	7,966	13,329	13,062	3,766	10,160	21,128	31,188

ENGLISH COTTONS.

Year.	Drills.		T-cloths.		Sheetings.		Total.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
		H.K.taels.		*H.K.taels.*				*H.K.taels.*
1879 .... pieces.	2,848	5,419	54,221	81,584	.....	.....	57,069	86,003
1880 .....do...	1,058	2,115	65,320	103,115	.....	.....	66,378	105,230

Table showing quantity and value of gross total piece goods of all kinds imported at Amoy during the years 1879 and 1880.

Description.	1879.		1880.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Cotton piece goods:		*H. K. taels.*		*H. K. taels.*
Shirtings, grey .....pieces.	62,811	102,321	61,021	121,283
white .....do....	37,790	87,643	41,373	111,297
dyed .....do....	1,672	3,292	1,158	2,383
white, spotted, and brocaded ..do....	266	689	91	235
dyed, spotted, and brocaded ....do....	2,345	6,003	2,818	7,362
T-cloths, English .....do....	54,221	80,584	65,320	103,115
American .....do....	10,420	10,212	13,329	13,062
Drills, English .....do....	2,848	5,419	1,058	2,115
American .....do....	3,203	6,068	4,033	7,966
Dutch .....do....	7	14	.....	.....
Sheetings, American .....do....	1,541	4,156	3,766	10,160
Jeans .....do....	229	458	540	1,065
Chintzes .....do....	2,630	3,739	1,829	3,019
Turkey reds .....do....	5,000	9,288	6,251	13,165
Damasks .....do....	368	1,840	332	1,660
Velvets .....do....	133	728	238	1,306
Muslins and lawns .....do....	1,282	1,114	1,227	1,199
Handkerchiefs .....dozen..	2,011	1,003	2,075	1,028
Unclassed .....pieces..	1,404	1,352	1,607	1,781
Total	190,181	325,943	208,065	402,201

Figures showing the increase of quotations of Formosa and locally-grown tea leaf during the season 1880–'81, as compared with season 1879–'80.

AMOY LEAF.

Common.....1880–'81, from $15 to $16 in June, to $9 to $10 in December.
1879–'80, from $12 to $14 in June, to $18 to $22 in December.

Fair .....1880–'81, from $18 to $19 in June, to $14 to $15 in December.
1879–'80, from $16 to $18 in June, to $24 to $25 in December.

Good cargo.....1880–'81, from $20 to $21 in June.
1879–'80, from $17 to $19 in July, to $26 to $29 in December.

Superior .....1880–'81, from $23 to $24 in July.
1879–'80, from $23 in August, to $30 to $32 in December.

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FORMOSA LEAF.

Common	1880–'81, none.
	1879–'80, from $22 to $24 in August and September, to $28 to $30 in December.
Fair	1880–'81, from $24 to $26 in August and September, to $24 to $26 in December.
	1879–'80, from $26 to $28 in August, to $36 in December.
Good cargo	1880–'81, from $31 to $33 in August, to $25 to $29 in December.
	1879–'80, from $26 to $28 in June, to $38 to $40 in December.
Superior	1880–'81, from $34 to $36 in June, to $31 to $32 in December.
	1879–'80, from $30 to $31 in June, to $42 to $45 in December.
Fine	1880–'81, from $38 to $40 in June.
	1879–'80, from $32 to $34 in June, to $49 to $52.
Finest	1880–'81, from $43 to $45 in June.
	1879–'80, from $35 to $40 in June, to $54 to $58 in December.
To choice	1880–'81, from $45 to $50 in June.
	1879–'80, from $44 to $50 in June, to $52 to $60 in September.

TEA EXPORT, SEASON 1880–'81.

	Pounds.
To New York, Formosa leaf (not all shipped)	10,263,000
Amoy leaf	5,493,000
To London, Formosa leaf	641,000
Amoy leaf	211,000

DECLINE OF AMERICAN SHIPPING IN EASTERN WATERS.

REPORT BY CONSUL SCRUGGS, OF CANTON.

It will be seen from my quarterly returns that there has not been an American vessel in this port for three months past. There were but two during the previous quarter, and of these but one was really American, in the sense contemplated by our navigation laws. The other was not American built, had no American register, and though owned by American citizens had no right to carry the American flag into an American port. Before undertaking a voyage to San Francisco, she had to change owners, register under a foreign flag, and thus abandon all shadow of claim to her nationality.

What is true of Canton in this respect is true *pari passu* of other Chinese ports. Indeed it is true of all of them. Even Shanghai can hardly be held an exception; for the decrease in our shipping has been proportionately as great there as elsewhere in the far East. And in this regard what is true of Asiatic waters is equally true of the North and South Atlantic, of the waters of Western Europe, of the Bahamas, and of the Caribbean, the only distinctive American sea on the globe. Even of our own foreign commerce it is well known that less than one fourth of it is transported in American bottoms.

Of course there was a time when this was not the case. Twenty years ago the great bulk of our foreign trade was carried on by means of American ships. Our proportion of this carrying trade was then as 5 to 2; now it is as 3 to 9, and the tendency is still downward. At this accelerated rate of decrease prevailing during the past sixteen years the entire disappearance of our flag from the high seas seems a question of a few years only. And the saddest feature of all is that we seem perfectly content that this should be the case.

With our 15,000 miles of sea-coast, fronting Europe, Asia, Africa, and South America, we are no longer either a great commercial or a great naval

power. We do not aspire to a respectable rank among the naval powers of the world. We are ambitious and vain-glorious enough in matters of infinitely less moment; but neither pride nor prestige nor self-interest nor self-defense, nor all combined, seems adequate to awaken us to a realization of our humiliating position on the high seas. Our stupor and self-sufficiency in this matter seems well nigh chronic, if not hopeless. While other nations are seizing every opportunity, straining every nerve, and hesitating at no outlay, however great, to extend and strengthen their merchant marine, we are receiving our reward in deserted docks, in unemployed skill, in the drain of our resources, in the loss of our birthright to commercial pre-eminence, and in that steady decline in nautical skill and enterprise which in other countries have preceded commercial decay and death.

Much has been written, much eloquence has been expended in explanation of this deplorable state of things. Perhaps all this might have been spared. At any rate it is needed no longer.

The world is sufficiently advertised of our maritime weakness, and there is probably not a man in the United States of average intelligence who is not familiar with the causes that have led to it. Seventy thousand seamen suddenly withdrawn from the merchant service to form an extended blockade; one and a quarter million tons of merchant shipping withdrawn from commerce to maintain this blockade and transport vast armies in defense of the Union; eight hundred thousand tons of American shipping suddenly canceling their registers and taking refuge under the British flag to escape destruction by rebel cruisers, and, when worn out, their places promptly supplied by British vessels; and the few American bottoms that miraculously survived this ordeal have been so harassed and burdened with every conceivable form of taxation, sanctioned by unwise legislation, that owners sought to change their investments, and thus quietly abandon the trade to foreign rivals. Must this thing continue? Shall we abandon the world's commerce to European and Asiatic rivals? Or shall we make an intelligent and determined effort to regain our wonted share of it?

Self-interest, national pride, and a due appreciation of its importance as a defensive measure suggest the alternative last named, and this resolution once formed would respond to an intelligent public sentiment from one end of our broad domain to the other. But whenever the subject seems likely to assume tangible shape the demagogue's cry of "economy" is raised. Congressmen become timid, fall back into the ruts, renew the local scramble for place and for party supremacy, and nothing is done. Thus, while England (our great commercial rival) is paying an annual subsidy of $4,000,000 in aid of her steamship lines we pay next to nothing. However, we are liberal and open handed enough in the opposite direction, for during the past decade we have contributed nearly $5,000,000 in the way of mail service, towards building up and maintaining foreign steamship lines. Our sentiment of "economy" is not offended by this. But if some member of Congress happens to propose a subsidy to our own steamship lines the effect is like that produced by the sharp tones of a midnight fire bell in a quiet village. He will probably spend the remainder of the session in personal explanations.

As a nation we stand quite alone in this respect. France, crippled as she has been by the Prussian war, is paying an annual subsidy of about $4,000,000 in support of her merchant marine. Austria is paying about $600,000. Italy is paying over $1,250,000. The little kingdom of Belgium, with less area, population, wealth, and commerce than one of

our Atlantic States, is paying something over $200,000. Even staid old China, which twenty years ago was not known as a maritime power, now pays thousands in proportion to our tens in support of a national merchant marine.

It will be admitted, I presume, that if we decide to make an effort to regain our normal position in the world's commerce we cannot rely upon wooden sailing vessels alone. If we do, we shall, at the beginning, voluntarily surrender nearly two-thirds of that commerce. We must, then, in the event of the decision referred to, make up our minds to have inor steamships as well. And to enable these to compete successfully with those of other nationalities we must employ those aids and instrumentalities which have made our rivals so formidable.

Subsidy is not a favorite word in the United States. There is somehow an unpleasant odor attached to it. Besides, to be quite frank, the plan of subsidies, as heretofore advocated, is admitted to be impolitic. It should be abandoned at once. The granting of subsidies to special persons and lines is wrong in principle and demoralizing in practice. But a general law that would ignore individuals and enforce a policy would not be open to these objections. Any one can conceive, for instance, how a law might be so framed as to give to any company composed of American citizens who may build, of American materials and in an American dock-yard, an iron steamship of a given tonnage, a monthly allowance of so much per mile per annum for carrying the mails without offending popular prejudice or opening up the fountains of scandal. And it could be so hedged in by judicious provisos as to insure honesty and good faith in its execution. For instance, that the steamship claiming the subsidy undergo thorough inspection under the direction of the Secretaries of the Treasury and Navy, and of the Postmaster-General; and that the joint certificate of these high officials (or of a commission named by them) as to her construction, capacity, speed, safety, and accommodations for passengers and cargo show that she is entitled to the subsidy under the provisions of the law. And if, when the annual appropriation is called for, the shibboleth of "economy" should be sounded (as it probably would be), and some rural members should take alarm, let him be considerately reminded that our Post-Office Department is now paying larger sums per mile to railway corporations for domestic mail service than would ever be asked for to enable our iron steamships to compete successfully with those of rival powers.

WILLIAM L. SCRUGGS,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Canton, April 2, 1881.

THE IMPORTS OF JAPAN.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL VAN BUREN, OF KANAGAWA.

I have the honor to submit a brief tabulated statement showing the chief articles imported into Japan from the United States and several of the nationalities of Europe and Asia in the year ending June 30, 1880. The items, including only those amounting in value to $5,000 or upwards, are taken from the returns of the customs department, which cannot be always relied upon as strictly correct. The difficulty of procuring strictly reliable statistical information upon this or kindred sub-

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jects in Japan I have frequently before referred to. I trust, however, that the figures presented will be found sufficiently approximate to the actual importations to afford a fair estimate of the propositions brought from the different countries.

Imports from the United States.

	Value.
Butter	$36,031 28
Canvas and cotton duck	20,231 62
Clocks	219,004 24
Cordage	11,846 63
Cotton and chintzes, printed	16,706 38
Gum ware	12,752 00
Hoofs	10,292 67
Kerosene	1,803,558 66
Lamps and fittings	63,778 08
Leather	57,809 12
Machinery	20,686 30
Medicines	28,947 61
Provisions	70,133 52
Quicksilver	16,075 48
Rifles	125,708 30
Stationery	27,072 40
Tobacco, including cigars and cigarettes	11,105 36
Watches	23,021 90

Imports from Great Britain.

	Value.
Alpacas	$19,919 53
Blankets	186,759 92
Beer in bottles	67,286 50
Prussian blue	11,855 50
Camlets	10,524 38
Candles	22,793 27
Carpets	81,043 31
Cement	33,686 28
Clothing	13,034 16
Cordage	17,378 66
Cotton brocades	30,926 45
velvets	602,719 64
satins	357,117 26
chintzes, printed	223,816 76
drills	49,533 68
satins for umbrellas	52,669 64
Cotton and silk mixtures	7,672 66
Cotton yarn	6,558,947 69
Gray shirtings	2,952,228 33
White shirtings	92,523 90
Dyed shirtings	221,313 38
Twilled shirtings	100,565 41
Lawns	256,736 69
T-cloth	109,873 53
Cotton and woolen goods	562,427 51
Cotton goods, not specified	57,395 95
Coal	140,529 46
Drugs	23,262 24
Dyes	103,543 74
Flannels	22,520 96
Furs	10,833 44
Furniture	19,156 60
Glass, window	21,827 13
Glassware	23,115 92
Gum ware	24,437 48
Handkerchiefs	17,216 99
Hats	45,642 22
Instruments, scientific	24,808 68
Iron, manufactured	755,888 47
for remanufacturing	44,539 08
for roofing	11,459 24
Iron, pig	$34,316 52
wire	44,081 79
manufactured for government use	24,095 24
ware	22,444 66
pipe	16,827 78
Italian cloth	819,253 43
Lastings	133,954 32
Lead, tin	224,103 96
Leather	21,323 11
Lamps and fittings	12,543 92
Lead, pig	60,544 04
sheet	13,555 33
Long ells	25,119 03
Lusters	39,198 01
Mousseline de laine	28,116 58
Machinery	275,933 04
Medicines	422,484 44
Nickels	39,919 72
Oil-paint	50,343 02
Orleans	316,143 42
Paper	71,706 24
Provisions	38,749 10
Quinine	45,155 55
Serges	32,631 05
Soap, bar	22,981 89
scented	23,548 50
Spelter and zinc	82,055 90
Saltpeter	18,285 82
Stationery	20,092 50
Steel	62,701 35
Smalt	32,486 55
Taffachelass	91,462 59
Tin	44,816 67
Tin-plates	84,077 94
Umbrellas	13,827 30
Umbrella frames	152,218 14
Vessels, steam	58,400 00
sailing	33,330 00
Woolen cloth	166,632 01
Yellow metal	80,659 73

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Imports from France.

	Value.		Value.
Articles de Paris	$5,415 02	Mousseline de laine	$2,987,193 90
Brandy in bottles	40,240 82	Paper	12,165 00
Champagne in bottles	31,156 42	Perfumery and cosmetics	7,825 50
Dyes	16,657 94	Quinine	26,936 65
Italian cloth	42,672 93	Saffron	11,730 12
Instruments, scientific	14,025 88	Sugar, loaf	6,566 91
Iron, manufactured	27,757 80	Silk and cotton mixtures	52,192 56
Leather	58,743 01	Wine in casks	32,418 70
Medicines	55,053 52	bottles	40,646 86
Machinery	7,889 78		

Imports from Germany.

	Value.		Value.
Beer in bottles	$11,637 38	Machinery	$178,807 90
Cannon	49,549 20	Medicines	66,553 86
Cotton singlets and drawers	11,466 30	Mousseline de laine	409,449 68
Dyes	142,945 26	Silk and cotton mixtures	190,485 94
Iron, manufactured	34,804 97	Umbrella frames	55,294 08
Italian cloth	39,429 87	Vessels, sailing	27,850 00
Lamps and fittings	16,673 96	Woolen cloth	33,928 53

Imports from China.

	Value.		Value.
Alum	$12,990 00	Rice	$143,086 54
Cloves and mother cloves	20,890 62	Rattans	24,469 40
Cotton, raw	82,149 60	Rhubarb	17,055 69
Camphor, refined	56,627 80	Safflower	154,560 56
Drugs	92,741 78	Silk manufacture	38,526 05
Leather	125,855 67	Silk satins	68,748 54
Lines, fishing	30,203 00	Saltpeter	25,443 14
Licorice	30,566 40	Sugar, brown	2,428,836 95
Mats, packing	118,780 51	white	975,898 19
Musk	67,509 06	candy	94,883 44
Oil, ground-nut	13,850 50	Sheep	10,655 01
Oil cake	187,510 92	Tea	6,178 30
Paper, Chinese	82,149 82	Tin	41,324 12
Pease and beans	470,286 55	Tortoise-shell	14,203 20
Provisions	40,949 19	Vermilion	74,454 00

Imports from East Indies and Siam.

	Value.		Value.
Cloves and mother cloves	$15,888 34	Musk	$12,927 00
Cordage	24,194 91	Rattan	25,184 26
Cotton yarn	1,267,118 80	Rice	316,899 35
Drugs	7,077 89	Safflower	36,575 30
Gunny-bags	17,205 20	Sugar, white	36,833 10
Horn, rhinoceros	14,448 26	brown	14,109 88
Ivory	24,487 25	Tobacco, including cigars and cigarettes	29,537 65
Leather	25,847 47	Tortoise-shell	52,093 02
Medicines	10,077 20		

Imports from Belgium.

	Value.		Value.
Candles	$8,401 37	Lamps and fittings	$20,508 12
Glass, window	37,660 44	Paper	6,402 98
ware	13,511 56	Spelter and zinc	7,530 67
Iron manufactures	86,241 61		

From Holland.

	Value.
Machinery	$7,000 00

From Italy.

	Value.
Corals	$114,183 14
Quinine	21,315 85

From Denmark.

Vessels, sailing	8,500 00

From Austria.

Leather	8,050 00

From Spain.

Saffron	7,460 40
Timber and plank	9,989 00

From Sweden and Norway.

Matches	5,444 70

The largest importations from the United States, it will be seen, are:

	Value.
Kerosene oil	$1,803,558 66
Clocks	219,004 24
Rifles	125,708 30

Of lamps and fittings we furnish $63,778.08 against $16,673.96 from Germany, $12,543.92 from Great Britain, and $20,508.12 from Belgium.

From Great Britain the largest imports are cotton and woolen goods and machinery, a trade of considerable value. France sends mousseline de laine, silk and cotton goods, wines and brandies, leather, and medicines. Germany, mousseline de laine, silk and cotton goods, and machinery. China, sugar, drugs, leather, paper, raw cotton, and mats, and the East Indies and Siam, cotton yarn and cordage.

At the present prices of production of cotton yarn in the United States, as I have very frequently had occasion to remark, I do not think it possible for us to compete with Great Britain, and so, too, with most of our cotton manufactures. With regard to the heavy sizing practiced by the English manufacturers of their white cotton goods for the eastern markets, I am told that such goods are appreciated by the people of China and Japan for use as linings or inside fillings for winter garments. They claim that the sizing does not injure the goods while adding greatly to their weight and warmth. I have heretofore observed that it was doubtful if, in the long run, it would pay our manufacturers to cheapen the quality of their goods in order to afford them at a lower price; but may it not be worth their while to inquire into the subject in the light I have now presented it, so as to determine if they should not enter into competition with England for this growing and valuable trade? Goods made especially for this market of lighter weight and prepared in the manner desired by the people could be sold, and the question whether it should be done is important enough to merit the most serious consideration.

In machinery, also, and in the cheaper woolen goods, as well as in groceries, provisions, butter, leather, lamps and fittings, gumware, &c., I should suppose that our country could and should secure a much larger portion of the trade.

THOS. B. VAN BUREN,
Consul-General.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE-GENERAL,
Kanagawa, February 4, 1881.

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THE NAGASAKI COAL-FIELD.

REPORT BY CONSUL JONES, OF NAGASAKI.

The field from which, at present and in the future, the main supply of coal for the Nagasaki market is and will be supplied, is situated under the sea and islands and along all the coast line, extending northward from Cape Nomo, in the south, up to the entrance to Nagasaki Harbor, and from thence in a westerly direction almost to Hirado-shima, the most northerly of the Goto Islands. This defines only two boundaries of the coal-field, namely, the eastern boundary, from Cape Nomo to the Nagasaki Harbor, measuring about 15 miles, and the northern boundary, from Nagasaki Harbor to Hirado-shima, measuring about 60 miles. If these two sides are taken as sides of a parallelogram it would give an area to the field of 900 square miles, but it is impossible accurately to define the limits, either on the west or southern sides, owing to the fact that the strata here are totally submerged under the sea. It is, however, highly probable that when the Goto Archipelago comes to be more thoroughly explored, it will be found that the coal measures either crop out in or underlie these islands.

All along the coast line of the main-land the coal measures are found to be very much broken up and of only limited extent, owing to the heavy denudation and upheaval which the strata have undergone in former geological periods.

In all the various groups of islands, however, with which the sea in this district is studded, the coal has, to a greater or less extent, been worked in the past, and it is to these islands that, in the future, Nagasaki may look for its supplies of coal.

The coal-bearing stratum of this district seems, by common consent among geologists and others who have given the subject any study, to be referred to the Tertiary Period, although, from the weight that his opinion is likely to carry, it should be stated that Professor Nordenskiold, who, when at Nagasaki in the Vega, devoted some days to the study of the rocks in this neighborhood, seemed inclined to the belief that they might more justly be classed as Permian.

The coal may be described as being highly bituminous, of irregular fracture, inclining toward cubical, having, when freshly broken, a lustrous black appearance, which changes by protracted exposure to atmospheric influence to a dull rusty black.

The known seams of workable coal vary considerably in thickness, the thinnest seam wrought being a seam of barely 3 feet in thickness, which is worked at Hira-shima, and the thickest being an 18 feet seam, which is worked at Taka-shima.

On account of the limited extent to which prospecting operations have hitherto been carried on, it is impossible, with any degree of accuracy, to state what the total thickness of workable coal may be, but the "Goto Tankosha," a mining company, in whose hands the greater portion of this coal field is placed, have already proved and worked at their Taka-shima mines coal seams of an aggregate thickness of 50 feet. The existence has also been proved, near Matsu-shima, of two seams of coal, each measuring 7 feet in thickness, and there are several seams of from 4 to 6 feet at present being worked on other islands, notably, Koyaki, Iwo shima, and Oki-shima, but in a primitive manner by native miners.

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At present, however, the supply of coal is almost entirely derived from the workings of the "Goto Tankosha" at their Taka-shima mines. These mines are situated on Taka-shima, a small island of from 300 to 400 acres in extent, lying about eight miles southwest from Nagasaki. This island is about two miles from the main land of Kiu-Siu; it is of a rocky, barren aspect, as if suddenly and violently thrown up from the sea, and rises abruptly from the water to an altitude of about 400 feet. Its rugged heights are covered with straggling shrubbery and little or no verdure, in marked contrast to the verdant hills and mountains of the country generally. As far back as its history can be traced, a few fishermen were its only inhabitants, who found shelter within its scanty inlets, and subsisted entirely on the product of their nets. In making fires to light their fishing operations, and at certain seasons to attract the fish, by lights suspended from their boats, they found and used for this purpose the first outcroppings of the coal, which circumstance, no doubt, originally attracted attention to, and was the cause, subsequently, of discovering the existence of the coal field. Coal was then known to exist in, and has been obtained from, this island by the Japanese for the last two centuries, but the quantity extracted was very small, and the mining operations, as carried on by them, simple and rude, which consisted principally in following down the coal seams from their outcrop at the surface until the quantity of water, draining in from above, became too great for their rude pumping appliances to deal with. This latter event generally occurred at a point varying from 100 to 150 yards from daylight, and when it took place the working was abandoned and fresh outcrops prospected for.

The system of working which was in use in these old native operations would seem to be a very rude description of "pillar and stull" working, bearing a strong resemblance to the old method for extracting the vein in metalliferous mining. Most of the mining operations which are carried on by native miners, without the assistance of foreigners, still partake very much of this character, although, of course, they are considerably modified by the example offered by the works which are being prosecuted under foreign supervision.

The natives continued to work the coal in Taka-shima in a more or less desultory fashion until the year 1868, when Mr. T. B. Glover, an English gentleman, of enterprise and sagacity, became interested in the native mining operations and entered into arrangements with the Prince to whom the island belonged, for the purpose of working the coal after the European system. With this view, Mr. Glover engaged the services of foreign engineers, and imported the most improved machinery.

The mines were subsequently taken over by the Japenese Government to its own use and behoof, on the enactment of the law prohibiting foreigners from holding or working mines in Japanese territory.

From the Japanese Government the mines passed into the hands of their present owner, Mr. Goto Shojiro, who works them by a business corporation called the "Goto Tankosha," the work of the company being carried on by Japanese, acting under the advice and assistance of a foreign manager and engineer.

The average daily out-put of coal from this company's mines is at present about 1,000 tons per day, with the capacity for supplying double that quantity when required. The coal is obtained from three separate seams, measuring respectively 8 feet, 10 feet, and 18 feet. The method of work adopted is the ordinary post and stull system. As most of the workings extend out from the island beneath the sea, considerable diffi-

culties have to be encountered in contending with water, engine power of the total of 200 horse-power being used in pumping.

The dip and rise of the stratum at Taka-shima being very steep (at the rate of about one vertical to three horizontal), the main haulage is carried on almost entirely by engine power, the power being transmitted through steel wire ropes of two and a half inches in circumference. The aggregate length of engine roads below ground is over three miles.

As the workings have extended large quantities of "fire-damp" have been encountered, which has necessitated a very elaborate system of ventilation. Fans are in use for this purpose, which pass a quarter of a million of cubic feet of air through the mine per minute.

All the mines are illuminated by means of locked safety lamps, the "Clauny" being the form of lamp in use.

Several severe explosions have occurred in the mines, the last taking place in April, 1880, when seventy miners were killed.

There are about four thousand workmen employed in and about the Taka-shima mines, which include a very competent staff of mechanics. All repairs are done and new machinery made at the mines by the company.

The coal is conveyed from Taka-shima to Nagasaki in native junks, of which about one hundred are in constant employment, being towed to and fro by the company steam tug-boat. The cost of transportation is about 16 sens per ton.

The laborers and miners of the Taka-shima coal company live on the island, in houses built by the company in Japanese style, which form a considerable village. They are supplied with provisions by the company at cost prices. These provisions in the way of food consis t of rice vegetables, and soup; sometimes, on extra occasions, féte days for in, stance, they supply themselves with fish. The cost of food per day for each individual is about 10 sens. The Japanese sen corresponds with the copper cent of the United States, but of slightly less value—about two mills less.

The wages for ordinary labor are from 14 to 45 sens per day. Skilled labor and the foremen of gangs receive higher wages—about 75 sens per day.

The miners are divided into parties or squads of five persons, two to dig or cut the coal, and three to carry it to the tramways. These are paid in proportion to the quantity of coal they handle—that is to say, by the cattie. 100 catties make a picul. A picul is 133⅓ pounds; and their days labor amounts to an average of about 30 sens. Women and children are employed in the mines and receive the lowest wages, viz, 14 sens per day. A day's labor is 8 hours; either by day or night. A miner is at no expense for clothing, a straw sandal being usually his only garment.

The Taka-shima Coal Company have a depot at Nagasaki, where about eight hundred people are employed in conveying the coal from the junks to the coal-yard, loading steamers, &c.

In coaling steamers the junk is brought alongside, a line or queue is formed from the junk, up the ladder of the steamer, by men, women, and children, and the coal is rapidly passed from hand to hand in small straw baskets. Long practice has given them great dexterity, and the coaling is done in the most marvelously rapid manner.

The prices of coal delivered at Nagasaki are $7 for large, $4.50 for mixed, and $3.50 for coal dust per ton. Vessels of war usually use the large or lump coal at $7 per ton.

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The amount of coal yielded by the Taka-shima mines for the year 1880 was 232,735 tons. Of these 113,430 tons were sold at Nagasaki.

Shipped to Hong Kong	46,318
Shipped to Shanghai	51,069
Shipped to Yokohama	4,394
Shipped to Amoy	792
Shipped to Hakodadi	754
Shipped to Tien-Tsin	6,005
Shipped to Taku	406

It is worth mentioning, perhaps, as a curious circumstance, that notwithstanding the abundant supply of coal, its proximity, convenience, &c., it is not used by the Japanese for heating or cooking purposes in the city of Nagasaki, nor, I believe, in any part of Japan. Their houses are constructed for a summer climate, without fire-places or chimneys, and are heated, when the weather is cold, by charcoal, burned in small, portable vessels made either of metal, porcelain, or wood, called "hibachies." The cooking is done also over the hibachi.

The Taka-shima coal has been gradually coming more and more into favor as a steam coal, both for vessels of war and merchant steamers. It is used by the American steamers of the Pacific Mail and Occidental and Oriental Steamship Companies, and by the British mail steamers of the Peninsular and Oriental Company, besides all the ocean steamers running between Europe and China and Japan. The navies of Germany, France, Russia, and Italy have also adopted it for use when in Eastern waters.

Annexed is a copy of an analysis of the Taka-shima coal, made by Mr. Percy for the British Government in 1872, and an account of a comparative trial made about the same time, on board Her Britannic Majesty's gunboat Mosquito, for the purpose of determining the actual value of the coal for steam-producing purposes.

The Nagasaki market also obtains small supplies of coal from various other mines in the immediate neighborhood, notably from the Karatsu, Ima-buko, and Taku mines. These mines are all situated on small outlying fields of coal, and the quality is inferior, while the quantity supplied is very irregular, on account of the difficulties of transportation and the desultory manner in which the workings are conducted, the operations being conducted solely by Japanese, without the aid of foreign skilled labor or modern machinery.

The Japanese Government have lately opened out a new field of coal in the Higo district of this province, at Miike. This new colliery is supplied with all the latest foreign mining machinery, and is carried on under the superintendence of a foreign mining engineer. It has an output capacity of from three to four hundred tons per day, and the coal is shipped from the port of Kuchinotsu, which has been opened to foreign ships for that purpose.

Miike colliery and its port of Kuchinotsu are about 30 miles distant from Nagasaki, and are situated in a different coal-field from that above described. The coal is also of a slightly inferior quality, owing to the presence of sulphur. The access to the port of Kuchinotsu is rather difficult, on account of the prevalence of abnormally strong currents in its vicinity. The Japanese Government have lately provided the harbor with a leading light, in order, if possible, to obviate this danger.

The Miike coal is principally shipped to Shanghai for use in the Chinese native river steamers.

The dust, or refuse coal, is used by the natives in the manufacture of salt in the immediate neighborhood, which is made by them in considerable quantities from the sea-water.

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The yield of coal from the Miike mine for the year 1880 was 142,235 tons, of which 17,904 tons were sold in Japan, and 124,331 tons were sold in China.

For the year 1880, 560,000 yen (Japanese currency for dollars) were paid to foreign vessels for the carriage of coal from the Taka-shima and Miike mines.

A coal mine has been recently opened, by private enterprise, at Nakano-shima, an island situated about two miles south of Taka-shima, where a pit has been sunk, and the machinery erected, but the work of mining not yet begun. The quality of this coal is said to be like that at Taka-shima.

Anthracite coal is found on the island of Amakusa. This island is situated southeast from Cape Nomo, and about 40 miles from Nagasaki. It is an island of considerable extent, being about forty miles long and twenty-five miles wide, and has a population of several thousand people. On its coast are two or three good harbors for small craft, and on the west side there is a fine bay, where large vessels can ride at anchor in safety. This island is described as containing rich valleys and gentle hill slopes, and a wealth of vegetation. Much of the land is under cultivation. Game is said to be abundant and of various kinds, and monkeys in large numbers.

The native merchants of Nagasaki procure from this island a good quality of antimony and a superior limestone, of which latter a mortar is made that is considered equal to the best cement.

The anthracite coal is found in beds varying in thickness from 3 to 8 and 10 feet, but it is not worked to any extent, and only in the old methods. In appearance it is much like American anthracite coal, but contains large quantities of sulphur, and on this account has not been much used for house purposes among foreign residents. It is mostly shipped to China, where, I am informed, it is mixed with American anthracite and sold to foreign ships.

A. C. JONES,
Consul.

CONSULATE OF THE UNITED STATES,
Nagasaki, Japan, February 26, 1881.

TAKASIMA COAL.

I.—ANALYSIS.

The manager of the Takasima colliery has been favored by Vice-Admiral Sir Charle Shadwell, K. C. B., with the following copy of an analysis of Takasima coal, submitted by Dr. Percy to the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, upon a sample forwarded to England in H. M.'ss. Juno, in October, 1872.

HOUSE OF COMMONS, 25*th July*, 1873.

SIR: I have pleasure in herewith communicating to you the results of the analysis of coal from Takasima which you forwarded to me for examination,

	Composition per cent.	Composition per cent. exclusive of sulphur, ash, and water.
Carbon	79.26	84.43
Hydrogen	5.86	6.24
Oxygen and nitrogen	8.76	9.33
Sulphur	0.11	
Ash	4.51	
Water	1.50	
	100.00	100.00

It yields by coking: Coke, 58.01 per cent.; volatile gaseous matter, 41.99 per cent.

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The coal is rather tender, and contains a few very thin films of iron pyrites. The coke is light, tender, and porous. The gases evolved during coking burnt with a luminous smoky flame. The color of the ash was pale red.

This coal possesses great heat-giving power, and may be regarded in that respect as of high quality.

I am, &c.,

JOHN PERCY.

To the SECRETARY OF THE ADMIRALTY.

II.—STEAM TRIAL.

The following detailed report of experiments made with Takasima coal on board H.M.'s gunboat Mosquito has also been communicated to the manager of the colliery by the kind permission of Sir Charles Shadwell:

Two tons of Takasima coal were received on board H.M.'s gunboat Mosquito for the purpose of testing its steaming qualities as compared with, first, Welsh coal; secondly, as compared with Welsh and English North country mixed.

Steaming with Takasima coal only.

Duration of trial in hours	7 hours.
Total distance run	39.3 knots.
Average speed	5.6 knots.
Average number of revolutions	82
Average indicated horse power	137.72
Total consumption of coal during trial	20 cwts.
Consumption of coal per indicated horse power per hour.	2.32 lbs.
Consumption of coal per knot	56.9 lbs.
Distance run with one ton of coal	39.3 knots.
Force and direction of wind	2 to 3 S. W.
Course of the vessel	S. W. by W.
State of the sea	Slight swell.
Amount of ash	8.1 per cent.
Amount clinker	1.8 per cent.

Steaming with Takasima and Welsh coal mixed in equal proportions.

Duration of trial, in hours	14 hours.
Total distance run	84.3 knots.
Average speed	6.02 knots.
Average number of revolutions	84
Average indicated horse-power	143.74
Total consumption of coal during trial	40 cwts. (half Takasima.)
Consumption of coal per indicated horse-power per hour.	2.27 lbs.
Consumption of coal per knot	53.1 lbs
Distance run with one ton of coal	42.1 knots.
Force and direction of wind	3 S. W.
Course of the vessel	S. W. by W.
State of the sea	Slight swell.
Amount of ash	3.6 per cent.
Amount of clinker	none formed.

The gunboat Mosquito is propelled by engines constructed on the compound principle, with surface condensers.

Two circular boilers with horizontal metal tubes. These boilers are fitted with hanging bridges, between the ordinary bridge and tube plate, and with sliding doors for admitting air through the ordinary bridge under the furnaces into the combustion chamber. The furnace doors are also fitted with sliding venetians for admitting air over the top of the fires.

During the first two hours of the trial with Takasima coal only, the doors for admitting air into the combustion chamber were kept closed, when it was observed that at each firing a dense volume of smoke was emitted from the funnel; on admitting air into the chambers and using the sliding doors on the furnaces, the volume of smoke emitted was not greater than that produced by using English North Country only.

During the whole of the second trial with half Welsh and half Takasima coal, air was allowed to pass into the combustion chamber, and at each firing a small volume of smoke, of light brown color, was emitted, but between the interval of firing no smoke was perceptible.

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As previous to the commencement of these trials the vessel had been steaming, no opportunity was afforded of ascertaining its relative qualities for raising steam.

On comparing the relative value of Takasima coal only with the results as obtained, under similar conditions with Welsh coal only, the Takasima is to Welsh as 1.$\frac{1}{16}$ taking the distance the vessel steamed with one ton of coal as the measure of value.

Similarly, the Takasima and Welsh mixed in equal proportions is to Welsh and North Country as 1.$\frac{1}{19}$.

JOHN RICE,
Engineer in Charge H.M.'s gunboat Mosquito.

TELEGRAPHS IN JAPAN.

REPORT BY J. MORRIS, ESQ., OF THE JAPANESE TELEGRAPH SYSTEM—TRANSMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF STATE BY MR. BINGHAM, UNITED STATES MINISTER AT TOKIO.

Nine years ago Japan was described as a land of which little was known and still less understood. Western civilization has since that time progressed rapidly, and at this day it must be admitted that an average acquaintance with the general characteristics of the country and its people is now possessed by the reading public of the world.

Railways have been constructed and worked on a small scale between the present capital of Tokio and the open port of Yokohama, and between the ancient capital of Kioto and the ports of Osaka and Kobe, in all about 70 miles, and the benefits accruing to the possessors of rapid and effective means of transit are so far appreciated by all classes that very considerable traffic is now being conducted thereby, and the government is vigorously extending the system to places farther inland, the countries of trade in tea and silk.

Mining operations in iron, gold, and silver are receiving a fair share of attention and with the prospect of ultimate success, though the scarcity of good roads apart from the celebrated one which traverses the country from north to south is likely to prove a serious obstacle for some years to come.

Light-houses have been erected around the coast to an extent which renders the otherwise dangerous seas of the Japan Islands comparatively easy of navigation, and have so far been maintained with a noble disregard to the "light dues" enforced in some countries upon shipping.

The advantages derived from the existence of a powerful fleet of merchant steamers were unmistakably felt in connection with the suppression of the late insurrection in the island of "Kui-siu," but the fact must not be lost sight of that even this powerful weapon could only have been inefficiently wielded had it not been that the system of land telegraphs extended to most of the important towns of the empire, whereby the government was not only placed almost instantaneously in possession of details of the outbreak, but was subsequently enabled to make such disposition of its military and naval forces as to effectually quell the rising, which at one time seemed to threaten to end in another revolution.

It is, of course, with the past history and present doings of this branch of the public works service that I venture to trouble the members of the society to night, and while entering upon the task with great diffidence I trust I may succeed in placing some new facts before the meeting which may not be wholly uninteresting.

As far back as the year 1869 attention has been directed to the telegraph, and two short lines had been provided and worked by Brequet

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alphabetical instruments from Tokio to Yokohama, and Osaka to Kobe, in all about 40 English miles, but it was in 1871 that a general telegraphic system for the empire was decided upon. Engineers were then engaged from England, and upon their arrival in the autumn of that year a rapid preliminary survey of the country was undertaken and arrangements made for the provision of the requisite timber, the fittings in the shape of insulators, brackets, &c., as indeed wire and apparatus generally, having been ordered from England. In the course of the next spring and summer communication was fairly established through one-half of the principal trunk line, and in the ensuing autumn the entire length of about 900 miles was completed and opened provisionally for traffic, though as yet without formal official sanction, that being reserved until the elaborate system of lines which had been agreed upon for the whole country could be carried out in its entirety.

Innumerable little difficulties as may be imagined, were met with in these early days. The people of the interior had scarcely become reconciled to the new order of things consequent upon the revolution of 1868; the old feudal system was practically in force, though nominally abolished; the roads were but very imperfectly known even to the native staff; superstition and dislike to the introduction of western notions, with general hatred of the foreign "barbarian;" all had a share in rendering the establishment of the telegraph in the interior anything but an easy task, or absolutely devoid of personal danger. Happily this has long ceased, save in times of unusual excitement among the peasantry, and such instances are very rare.

The timber employed in the earlier works was not carefully selected—a great deal was sacrificed to speed of construction; but nevertheless some of the poles then set up are in existence to this day; most of them perished, however, with the third or fourth year of their existence, and all were replaced, with very few exceptions, within six years.

The tree from which the poles are commonly cut in Japan is the "sugi," a species of cedar (*Cryptomeria japonica*). Other woods are employed to some extent, among them the hinoki (*Pitiuspora obtusa*), and this appears to be less affected by dry rot than the cedar. Owing to various causes, however, there exists a great difficulty in the way of obtaining properly felled and seasoned timber, and it is unlikely that this will be diminished from the fact that the supplies of wood in the immediate neighborhood of the main trunk lines have become practically exhausted, and we have to look to the more remote island hillside to yield sufficient for the annual maintenance.

A few iron poles were imported, but they were too short in length to be generally employed, even if the first cost and subsequent charges attendant upon their transport from place to place had not been so vastly in excess of the price paid for wooden ones, which averages about 3*s.* 6*d.* for 24 feet lengths, gradually increasing to 50 feet lengths, for which, however, a very disproportionately high rate is demanded. The life of "sugi" poles naturally varies in duration very much according to the soil upon which the tree has grown, and to that in which it has subquently been erected; as a rule it is not safe to expect that it will endure beyond two years, and decay, in its earliest stages, frequently makes its appearance within six months. Tarring has been extensively resorted to, and in some instances with success; from the trouble and expense attending transport of tar to the country, however, it has lately been found unadvisable to persevere, and the cheapest and simplest course appears to be to replace the poles after a four-years' term, or at least as soon as decay has progressed so far as to make renewal desirable. This

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may sound somewhat strange, but timber and labor are so cheap in the provinces compared with the cost of transit of preserved timber by water or other means, combined with the fact that a numerous staff of linemen is everywhere regularly employed and available for repair work, it is a question whether a better policy could be pursued, at least at present. The Boucherizing process has lately been tried, and with a fair measure of success, as far as the first cost of poles so treated is concerned, but the calculations are based upon the assumption that this timber will be not less than three times as durable as that which has not been subjected to similar treatment. This the future can alone decide in regard to Japanese wood. Creosoting is quite out of the question, owing to the enormous expense of sending the poles to and from the works; if these were established at the central depot, or even if at several convenient points in the interior, everything having to be conveyed on hand-barrows or on men's shoulders for many miles. So much for the item of timber.

The short lines previously referred to as having existed prior to 1871 were worked by Brequet instruments, but the new and long lines thereafter provided have all been worked by Morse apparatus, supplied by Siemens Brothers, of the single current pattern, and these have given thorough satisfaction. Upon the longest line working between Yokohama and Nagasaki automatic translators are employed. At Kobe, occasionally in very fine weather, the wire has been worked direct without their aid—the batteries being of the value of about 80 cells Daniell, and the relays of 900 ohms resistance.

The Daniell battery is ordinarily employed throughout the system (a few Leclanche cells are in use for call bells merely), and a stock of plate cells and copper sulphate is supplied to every station in advance sufficient for six months' consumption.

The Brequet instruments were retained in use upon the short local lines in the capital for a considerable period, but gradually retired in favor of apparatus of the Morse type. Single needle instruments were employed upon the railway department wires between Tokio and Yokohama in 1872, and subsequently on those of the Kobe and Osaka section opened two years later; but these also have been replaced by the Morse system, with the object of attaining uniformity in regard to the apparatus in use as far as practicable. The single needle "blocks" originally used on the railways are still, however, in operation for train signaling.

At first the wire was everywhere suspended from insulators of the barley double cup earthenware pattern fixed in Warden's brackets, but it was shortly found advantageous to make use of wooden arms, particularly as there exists in the country a very suitable wood known as "keyaki," and also a species of oak, both everywhere obtainable at moderate price. Moreover, it was natural that in a country famous for its porcelain, attention should early be directed to the production of a material suitable for insulators. The first attempts in this direction were complete failures, and the home-made article turned out anything but well; but want of success at the outset did not cause the manufacturers to despond, and in the end a porcelain single cup insulator was produced which at once was found to answer all requirements and has since given general satisfaction, dating from the year 1874.

The best material for porcelain to be found for the purpose of making insulators was obtained from a hill in the island of Kiu-siu, regarding the use of which there was formerly the strictest prohibition save when the articles to be made were destined to grace the palace of the "Ty-

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coon" "Shogun." Insulators of this class when tested were found to be of a quality beyond the capacity of a Naomson reflecting galvanometer of 20,000 ohms resistance, unshunted, with a battery of 200 Daniell cells to determine. (Several are sent herewith for inspection, as well as a double-cup insulator made as an experiment, but too costly for general use.)

At the present time an instrument of the same resistance, &c., is employed to test every insulator before it leaves the works, the standard being fixed at 40,000 megohms. Those made of the famous "Zmari" or Hizen ware only fail to the extent of .797 per cent. to pass the ordeal; others of Kioto ware are not quite so good. Defective cups are destroyed immediately. Later on I may be permitted to offer some statistics relative to the actual tests taken daily for insulation.

In connection with the establishment of the line joining the capital with Nagasaki, in 1872, it became necessary to lay a submarine cable across the Straits of Shimonoseki, the western entrance of the inland sea which divides the island of Kiu-siu from the mainland of Nihon. The straits vary in width from two to only one-third of a mile at the narrowest point, and the most suitable position for the cable was found to be a little to the eastward of the narrow channel where the width is about 1,350 yards. The requisite length of shore-end cable was taken down from Yokohama by the steamer attached to the department, and the submersion was readily effected by means of small native lighters towed by ropes carried ashore and there hauled in by some hundred or so of the villagers and fishermen. This cable has remained in perfect condition to this hour. Four others have since been carried across at the same point.

The only difficulty attending cable laying operations in these "straits" is occasioned by the very strong tidal currents, which sweep through the narrow channel with a velocity frequently exceeding 8 knots per hour; the period of slack water is of so brief duration as to be almost undistinguishable. The cables are terminated upon Siemens' pattern plate dischargers in convenient huts built for the purpose.

The experiment was tried of suspending an open wire across the straits from poles erected on the adjoining hills, the length of span being about three-fourths of a mile; owing to the lack of really suitable wire, it was not altogether successful, and, after hanging for a week, the wire was caught by the mast of a passing man-of-war.

There is no special difficulty to be contended with in the provision of an open line in this spot, but as the submarine connection is absolutely safe, and costs practically nothing for maintenance (if we leave out the item of very gradual deterioration), it is unlikely that the experiment will be repeated.

At Zmajiri inlet, about midway between Yokohama and Kobe, it became necessary to carry over the line on poles set below water level, in some cases to a depth of 12 feet, the width of the inlet being about 2½ miles. This proved a somewhat tedious and expensive operation, especially as sea-going native vessels pass out by the central channel, the masts of which are so long as to necessitate the wires being kept 60 feet clear at high water. The works were substantially executed and the line existed with occasional mishaps until the poles decayed, in 1877, to an extent which rendered renewal imperative, and advantage was then taken of a by-road passing around the head of the inlet to do away with the crossing at its mouth by the substitution of an entirely land line which though involving extra mileage is less costly to maintain and is practically secure in stormy weather.

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The rivers of this country have proved to be a source of considerable trouble, especially in the hot season. In winter many are all but dry, but in floods during the summer and autumn months the channel becomes a mile or so in width, in two or three of the most important rivers of the east coast, and the velocity of the current at such times is prodigious, quantities of timber, even houses and cattle, being brought down from the hills and carried on with irresistible force to the open sea. The width from bank to bank being so great, it is not practicable to span such rivers, and, consequently, poles have to be planted in those portions of the flood channel least likely to be disturbed by the scour.

The earlier attempts in this direction were failures, but ultimately a system of construction was adopted which has for five years proved efficient to withstand the rush of the heaviest floods, and there is now no danger of the long-continued interruptions to communication which re cently occurred prior to 1874, when poles were regularly washed away in spite of all attempts at affording protection by fenders and embankments.

The widest of the east coast rivers, the Tenriu, is now crossed in four spans, averaging 450 yards each, the double "H" masts being 60 feet high, and the wire employed of No. 11 gauge.

The river Oigawa, where the floods are most serious, is crossed in three spans of about the same length, at a point where the banks approach each other, somewhat higher up stream than the regular ferry.

All the poles are well protected by fenders in a "V" shape, formed by piles driven in to a depth of 12 to 16 feet, the wire stays in the same way being attached to piles so that they can readily be tightened, if ever necessary.

Many attempts have been made to bridge these rivers, and no doubt immense benefit would accrue to the traffic on the high road if this could be effected, but so far, the wooden structures provided in the winter months have annually been swept away by the first floods, and, probably, nothing short of iron screw piles, carried down to a great depth, would afford any security as bridge supports. I was told that in the Fujikawa, another of these troublesome streams, the borings showed sand to a depth of 90 feet.

The frequent changes of channel rendered the preservation of a line of poles peculiarly hazardous, and it became necessary, for this reason, to reduce the number of supports to the lowest possible, and to make as long spans as consistent with safety in the much dreaded "typhoons" which frequently blow with hurricane force around these islands in the autumn.

At the outset but one wire was suspended from the poles on the southern trunk line. It soon became evident that the telegraph would be a popular institution, and greater facilities were needed for the rapidly increasing traffic; a second wire was therefore commenced in the same year. Extra wires have since been carried through, and at the present time there are five wires connecting the capital with the south, irrespective of the numerous branches and local lines and the two alternative routes by the middle and west coast roads.

The total mileage on the 31st December, 1879, was as follows:

	English miles.
Poles	3,929½
Wires	9,345

In 1871 a school was established for the training of the Japanese youths as operators; they have year by year been educated and sent to the various stations as rendered necessary by the extension of the serv-

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ice. In the year ending June 30, 1880, in all 227 were appointed to new offices or sent out as reliefs; 97 remained under tuition. These scholars are taught to write and speak English, and also French to some extent, with the rudiments of an English education generally, and they have to qualify as Morse operators by sending and receiving messages at a fair rate of speed previously determined upon.

The Japanese language having no regular alphabet, it became necessary to form a combination of Morse characters to represent the sounds of the syllabary known as the Katakana. This was effected by using the letters of the international code, supplemented by others formed of *five* dots and dashes (figures of course excepted), to produce a total of 47 signs, and the "native alphabet" so constituted has given tolerable satisfaction during the nine years which have passed since its introduction.

The maintenance of the lines throughout is performed by a staff of inspectors and linemen who have all undergone practical training on new and repair works, the inspectors being required to qualify themselves for the general indoor duties at offices, such as the localization of faults in wires or apparatus, battery testing, &c., before receiving their appointments. The linemen have nearly all been taught (under the eye of a European employé at some time or other) the methods of fitting and setting poles, jointing of wires, &c., and they can be trusted, as a rule, to execute minor repairs with reasonable dispatch and skill. It is a rare occurrence now to find an interruption lasting more than half a day on the trunk lines, unless in some exceptionally bad weather, or, as happens in the north in winter, accumulations of snow make the roads impassable. The workmen thus employed are divided into five classes, and distinguished by stripes on the blue cloth livery supplied to them twice a year; on the back they bear the badge of the letter "Deu," or lightning.

In some few instances such men have risen to the grade of petty officers; but as considerable acquaintance with Chinese writing and arithmetic is essential, the numbers of those who have so distinguished themselves is very limited.

In the ten months of the present year, ending October 31, there were 153 interruptions of less than 6 hours duration; 85 of less than 12 hours; 27 less than 24 hours; 21 other faults exceeded this limit, but only 7 of them were of a serious character, and were due to floods in the remote provinces, which stopped all traffic by road.

If we have regard to the total (87) number of distinct circuits for the 304 days, we find an average of somewhat less than one interruption per day on 9,345 miles of wire.

The system originally provided one man to about every 15 miles of line, the man living in the town or village midway through his section, and walking half of the entire length each day (Sundays excepted), for economical reasons, and to afford more complete control; however, the men now reside at the stations (which are only 30 miles apart on an average along the trunk line), except in some special cases, and go out whenever a fault appears, late or early, patrolling their stations only once a week or so; and this plan seems to answer every purpose.

The extension of the telegraph has produced some interesting results in regard to the rice trade. In former years a stock of the staff of life, equal to one and one-half year's consumption, was always kept on hand in the granaries of the various castle-towns, the residences of the numerous feudal lords; but with all precautions famines would occasionally occur in the more remote principalities. This, happily, is now impos-

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sible, owing to the readiness with which supplies can be concentrated upon any district threatened with scarcity by failure of the crop; and thus such large reserves are no longer needed, and quantities of grain can be placed upon the market which otherwise would be lying idle and certainly not improving in quality.

Telegrams are constantly exchanged between Japan and the principal centers of the tea and silk commerce in Europe and America; and upon the receipt of information from abroad in any degree affecting the exports from Japan, it is immediately distributed to the agents of the principal merchants in all parts of the empire. In regard to these products, therefore, the telegraphs may be said to have practically worked a revolution in the method of carrying on mercantile operations.

The value of all products, agricultural or otherwise, has vastly increased since the establishment of telegraphic communication, owing to the greater facilities afforded thereby to trade generally; and this may be said of property of all kinds.

Some idea of the extent to which the "wonder-working" wire is employed by Japanese merchants may be gained from the fact that recently, when the government had prohibited speculation in rice and paper currency for a brief period, the receipts at one office alone fell off to the amount of £70 as compared with the day before.

Before telegraphs existed, relays of messengers, fleet of foot, were kept continually in readiness, night or day, to convey dispatches affecting the prices and shipments from the various ports—men who maintained a speed of 9 miles an hour for an distance equal (in one case which came directly under my own observation) to 65 English miles.

Across the Straits of Shimonoseki, where five submarine cables now exist, the signaling was done by hand flags and lanterns. The total receipts for the year ending June 30, 1879, from all sources, amounted to £108,323, and the total expenditures (if we except the item of cost of building new lines) to £101,674, so that for the first time in the history of the department its revenue exceeded its working expenses. The new extension works involved a further outlay of £25,809.

The total number of telegrams dealt with during the year was 1,272,756, of which about 96 per cent. were in Japanese. International messages numbered 22,695.

The proportion of telegrams in the native language averages about one to every thirty individuals, taking the population at thirty-five and three-quarter millions, as determined by the latest census.

The rate of increase in traffic and receipts is represented roughly by the diagrams which I have the honor to submit for the inspection of the members of the society.

The experience of the last few years has shown indisputably that the tariff for native messages was originally framed on a basis too low to make the telegraph bureau a highly paying institution, but a low rate was adopted with the object of inducing the public to make general use of the system, and in the fear that a high tariff might have a prejudicial effect.

Doubtless at this moment so much dependence is placed upon the means of rapid interchange of news between the chief cities and ports, and the wires play so important a part in mercantile life, that an increase in charges would but little affect the traffic in bulk, but after the lapse of nine years it is not thought advisable to make any change in this direction.

The average rate for 20 characters of the Japanese language for a distance of about 60 miles is, roughly, 3 sen, or at present rates less than 1 penny, taking the entire line from Tokio to Nagasaki as a basis of

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calculation; of course the average for shorter distances is higher, but messages between Tokio and Yokohama are transmitted for 7 sen, which is about equal to 2¼*d.* for 20 miles.

The rates established for the foreign traffic throughout the country have been based on the fact that it costs more for their transmission. Skilled clerks are specially needed, and as high a rate of speed as compared with Japanese traffic cannot be maintained, the average price for 20 words (exclusive of the special international rates) amounts to about one-tenth of a penny a mile for messages passing between the capital and Nagasaki.

In the last fiscal year the income derived from foreign telegrams in this way was £4,719. Submarine cables exist at places around the coast other than Shimonoseki; there are two in the Inland Sea, connecting Nihon with Shikoku at a point where the channel is 6 miles wide, and two across the Tsugare Straits near Hakodadi.

The light-house steam-tender Meiji Maru (a Clyde-built vessel) was employed in connection with the submersion of the Shikohu cables, and the Great Northern Telegraph Company's "H. C. Orestes" was engaged to lay those at Hakodadi. The Shikoku cables originally consisted of "deep-sea Atlantic" with corresponding shore-ends, but were never very strong, owing to previous deterioration during the 6 years the material lay at Yokohama without at first proper storage accommodation; the fishermen, moreover, frequently hauled them to the surface unintentionally, perhaps, when getting up their anchors, and then in ignorance of their value set themselves free by the primitive method of dividing the wires with a hatchet. Finally, the "Teredo navalis" completed the work of destruction by boring innumerable holes in both. It was not until January of this year when a strongly protected cable, 2½ inches in diameter, with two conductors, was laid, that confidence in our ability to maintain a reliable line of communication at this point was fully restored.

In the north, several mishaps have occurred, and at present only one of the two cables is at work. It is intended, however, during the ensuing spring to lay a new one, with two conductors, from Imabetsu Bay direct to Hakodadi, thus avoiding a long land line liable in winter at any moment to be stopped by snow. The length of this cable will be about 33 miles.

Tests for insulation and on fine days for conducting twice a week are regularly made every morning at seven o'clock at three important stations, viz, Tokio, Kobe, and Nagasaki. As all the principal lines radiate from these three centers, accurate knowledge is possessed at headquarters of their condition by about 9 a. m., including some idea of the state of the weather everywhere.

Insulation is determined by a tangent galvanometer of 41 ohms resistance-conductiosity by the Wheatstone bridge. The wires in wet weather rarely give a lower insulation resistance than 1¾ megohms per mile, while in fine weather the southern lines, for example, show no leakage when tested to Soyohashi, a distance of 180 miles, which implies that the resistance is greater then 90 megohms per mile.

Much has yet to be done in the way of obtaining accurate meteorological reports by telegraph from the many distant stations. Great benefits must follow from observations of wind and weather on these coasts, peculiarly fitted as the islands are from their geographical position for such scientific investigations. The absence everywhere at present of iron works, &c., in proximity to the lines doubtless is a great advantage as far as insulation is concerned; but, on the other hand, the high roads are bordered by cryptomeria, and in summer the

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branches of these are the resorts of countless spiders which endeavor, and not without success, to counteract the beneficial effects of fine weather on the working of the lines by spinning myriad threads of gossamer between the earthwires, wooden arms, and insulators and the trees which they infest, and nothing is needed beyond the heavy night dews to render these fairy conductors almost perfection in their capabilities of working disaster. Men are constantly employed in sweeping the wires with bamboo brushes at this season, but the difficulty can in no way be completely overcome.

In the course of the year 1877, during the struggle with the Satsuma rebels, recourse was had to temporary lines of telegraph to a great extent, which proved instrumental in bringing the war to a speedy termination by reason of the facilities thus given to the commanders of the loyal army for concentrating their forces quickly at given points and for counteracting the rebel leader's tactics in the field.

The Satsuma men made splendid marches and might have effected many surprises but that the telegraph was ever at hand to defeat their schemes and to give opportunity for employment to the best purpose of the government troops. No fewer than 511 miles of line were constructed with this object, and 53 offices were opened at villages immediately in the rear of, or in direct connection with, the afterwards victorious army. The materials employed in construction were light portable posts, vulcanite insulators, and No. 11 wire, every use being made of natural supports in the way of trees, &c., when practicable, and for insulators, when the stock became low, anything in the shape of earthenware that could be picked up. There were but few interruptions of a serious character.

On the 31st of December, 1879, there were 112 offices open for general traffic, local and international, and 70 others connected with government departments, railways, or police; 53 in all are kept open day and night. There are 348 Morse instruments in use, 26 single needle-blocks, and 29 telephones of the Bell pattern; some of the latter have been made in the workshops and answer very well. A pair of Edison telephones have been tried in Tokio privately, with excellent results. Seventy-one instruments of various kinds are used in the school for the students to practice upon.

The staff of the department on the 31st December, 1879, numbered 1,803 individuals of all ranks, of which 496 were inspectors, linemen, and workmen; 707 were cashiers and clerks at stations, and 358 messengers, the remainder being engaged as correspondents, writers, &c., or at the depot as accountants, mechanicians, &c., and in various other capacities. The European employés now number 10 only, many having returned home on the expiration of their engagements, having been released by the government in the belief that many of the duties of supervision and instruction can now be performed satisfactorily by the Japanese staff.

I beg to submit a paper containing some statistical information furnished by the Japanese electrician, relative to the tests of wire and insulators, particularly with regard to the results obtained from copper wire of native manufacture, insulated with lacquer as a substitute for silk or cotton, and which promises to become a material of great service.

A special test of the wires, taken on the 1st and 2d instants for insulation, in fine weather, with the object of ascertaining the exact resistance of the insulator, gave as the total rate per mile, on a line 183 miles in length, the high record of 314.9 megohms.

J. MORRIS.

UNITED STATES LEGATION,
Tokio, January 20, 1881.

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AUSTRALASIA.

DISTRIBUTION OF AWARDS TO AMERICAN EXHIBITORS AT THE MELBOURNE EXHIBITION.

REPORT BY MR. PICKERING, EXECUTIVE MANAGER OF THE UNITED STATES COMMISSION.

The ceremony of the distribution of awards, which occurred on the 22d of March, was a very successful but a very simple affair. I inclose a full and correct account of this ceremony as contained in the daily papers, and also an official list of awards given to United States exhibitors, by which it will be seen that, as a nation, the United States has done remarkably well, receiving, in proportion to the number of exhibitors, a larger number of awards than at any previous exhibition.*

I am pleased to be able to report that, as a rule, our exhibitors have sold more goods and received more orders in proportion to the amount exhibited than the exhibitors of any other nation, a very large proportion of the exhibits from the United States being of a class of goods well adapted to the wants of the people of Australia. I hope to be enabled to obtain full statistics on this point to accompany my report.

By the next mail I hope to be able to send a final statement from Melbourne regarding the completion of the work of closing the American department of the Melbourne exhibition.

THOMAS R. PICKERING,
Executive Manager.

UNITED STATES COMMISSION,
Melbourne, April 15, 1881.

LIST OF AWARDS ISSUED TO THE AMERICAN EXHIBITORS.

FIRST DEGREE OF MERIT.

Name.	Locality.	Article.
Abbot Downing Company, The ..	Concord, N. H.....	Two-seated Concord buggies.
Adams, Peter.....	Buckland, Conn.....	Book printing paper.
Adams & Westlake.....	Chicago, Ill	Oil stoves.
Aikin, Lambert & Co	New York City	Gold pens and pencils.
Albion Paper Company	Holyoke, Mass	Book printing paper.
Allen & Ginter	Richmond, Va	Cut tobaccos.
Do	..... do	Cigarettes.
American Bank Note Company..	New York City	Engravings (art).
Do	..... do	Do.
Ames, Oliver, & Sons' Corporation	North Easton, Mass	Shovels and spades.
American Watch Company	Waltham, Mass	Watches.
Do	..... do	Engraving on watches.
Appleton, D., & Co	New York City	Publications.
Do.....	..... do	Book-binding.
Do.....	..... do	Printing.
Bevin Bros. Manufacturing Company.	East Hampton, Conn.....	Bells.
Bird, F. W., Hollingsworth & Co.	East Walpole, Mass.....	Tarred hardware and anti-rust paper.
Blake, Geo. F., Manufacturing Company.	Boston and New York City	cutlery, shot, shell, sand-paper. Steam-pump.
Boston Blower Company.....	Boston, Mass	Forge-blower.
Bradley & Rulofson	San Francisco, Cal	Photograph.
Brewster & Co	Broome street, New York City.	Buggy.
Brooks, Ezra.....	Hartford, Conn.....	Automatic pump.
Brown, B. F., & Co.....	Boston, Mass	Leather dressing.
Bruce's, Geo., Son & Co	New York City	Printing type.
Cameron, Wm., & Bro.....	Petersburg, Va	Manufactured hard tobacco.
Cameron, Alex., & Co.....	Richmond, Va	Do.

* See also pages 397 and 398, No. 5.

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List of awards, &c.—Continued.

FIRST DEGREE OF MERIT—Continued.

Name.	Locality.	Article.
Case Bros	South Manchester, Conn	Press paper.
Carter, Dinsmore & Co	Boston, Mass	Copying inks.
Do	do	Black writing inks.
Do	do	Colored writing inks.
Charter Oak Lawn Mower Company.	Hartford, Conn	Hand lawn mowers.
Do	do	Pony lawn mowers.
Collins & Co	do	Edge tools.
Crane Bros	Westfield, Mass	Ledger paper.
Cummings, John, & Co	Boston, Mass	Dressed shoe leather.
Colt's Patent Fire Arms Manufacturing Company.	Hartford, Conn	Baxter steam-engine.
Dare, C. W. F	New York City	Velocipedes.
Davey, W. O., & Sons	Jersey City, N. J	Tar mill boards.
Davis Sewing-Machine Company, The.	Watertown, N. Y	Family sewing-machines.
Do	do	Hand sewing-machines.
De Grau, Aymar & Co	New York City	Oars and handspikes.
Disston, Henry, & Sons	Philadelphia, Pa	Saws.
Dodds & Jackson	Dayton, Ohio	Davis lawn rake.
Douglas Manufacturing Company	Seymour, Conn	Chisels, augers, &c.
Douglas Axe Manufacturing Company, The.	Boston, Mass	Edge tools.
Douglas, W. & B	Middletown, Conn	Pumps.
Edison, Prof. Thos. A	Menlo Park, N. J	Electric pens.
Everett & Small	Boston, Mass	La Dow's patent harrows.
Fairbanks & Co	New York City	Weigh-bridges.
Do	do	Platform scales.
Do	do	Post-office balances.
Do	do	Railway scales.
Field, A., & Sons	Taunton, Mass	Tacks and nails.
Frick & Co	Waynesboro', Pa	"The Eclipse" farm portable engine.
Forbes Lithographic Manufacturing Company.	Boston, Mass	Albertype engravings.
Frothingham & Emory	New York City	Fire-proof safes.
Gail, G. W., & Ax	Baltimore, Md	Cut tobaccos.
Gally, Merritt	New York City	Universal printing press.
Gatling Gun Company	Hartford, Conn	One 10-barrel 0.45 Gatling gun.
Globe Nail Company	Boston, Mass	Horseshoe nails.
Gutta-Percha and Rubber Manufacturing Company.	New York City	Rubber hose and belting.
Hanthaway, C. L., & Sons	Boston, Mass	Leather dressing and blackings.
Herring & Co	New York City	Fire and burglar-proof safes.
Do	do	Burglar-proof safes.
Hill, James R., & Co	Concord, N. H	Double harnesses.
Do	do	Single harnesses.
Hill, Warren	Boston, Mass	Railway ticket punch.
Holt, Hiram, & Co	East Wilton, Me	Hay-knives.
Holyoke Paper Company	Holyoke, Mass	Linen writing and bank-note paper.
Houghton, Mifflin & Co	Boston, Mass	Publications.
Do	do	Printing.
Howe Scale Company	Rutland, Vt	Platform scales.
Hoyt, J. B., & Co	New York City	Leather belting.
Huston Ship's Berth Company	Boston and New York	Self-levelling berth.
Ives, Wm. A., & Co	New Haven, Conn	Wood-boring tools.
Johnston Harvester Company	Brockport, N. Y	Harvesters.
Do	do	Mowers.
Justi, H. D	Philadelphia, Pa	Artificial teeth.
Kelly & Bartholomew	New York City	Specimens of typography, "American Model Printer."
Kimball, Wm. S., & Co	Rochester, N. Y	Cut tobaccos.
Do	do	Cigarettes.
Lalance and Grosjean Manufacturing Company.	New York City	Seamless metal goods.
Lamb Knitting-Machine Manufacturing Company.	Chicopee Falls, Mass	Knitting-machine.
Lockwood, Howard	New York City	Publications.
Do	do	Printing.
Do	do	Electro-printing.
Do	do	Photo-engraving.
Lowell, John A., & Co	Boston, Mass	Steel engravings.
Mackinnon Pen Company	New York City	Fountain pen.
Magee, N	do	Harness-makers' machinery.
Manning, Bowman & Co	West Meriden, Conn	Granite iron ware.
Mason, Volney W., & Co	Providence, R. I	Friction clutch.
Matthews & Warren	Buffalo, N. Y	Color printing.
McCormick Harvesting Machine Company.	Chicago, Ill	Reaper and binder.
Do	do	Reaper and mower (combined).
Do	do	Mower.

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List of awards, &c.—Continued.

FIRST DEGREE OF MERIT—Continued.

Name.	Locality.	Article.
McKellar, Smiths & Jordan	Philadelphia, Pa	Printing type.
McLaughlin Bros	New York City	Publications.
Do	do	Printing.
Merriam, G. and C	Springfield, Mass	Webster's Unabridged Dictionary.
Miller, D. K., Lock Company	Philadelphia, Pa	Padlocks.
Morse Twist Drill and Machine Company.	New Bedford, Mass	Twist drills, taps, and dice.
National Drill and Compressor Company.	New York City	Air compressor.
Do	do	Rock drill.
New Haven Folding Chair Company.	New Haven, Conn	Invalid chairs.
New Haven Wheel Company	do	Carriage and wagon wheels.
Osborn, C. S	Newark, N. J	Harness makers' tools.
Pacific Rubber Paint Company	San Francisco, Cal	Rubber paint ready mixed.
Page, E. W., & Son	New York City	Oars.
Page, W. H., Wood Type Company.	Norwich, Conn	Wooden type and borders.
Peabody, H. W., & Co	Boston, Mass	Kerosene oil.
Pease, F. S	Buffalo, N. Y	Mineral oils.
Philadelphia College of Pharmacy	Philadelphia, Pa	Dried medicinal herbs.
Prang, L., & Co	Boston, Mass	Chromolithographs.
Do	do	Art printing.
Pray, Joseph F	do	Sulky.
Providence Tool Company	Providence, R. I	Peabody-Martini rifles.
Putnam Nail Company	Neponset (Boston), Mass	Horseshoe nails.
Puzzoline Company, The	Boston, Mass	Liquid mineral glue and cement and mucilage.
Railway Barb Fencing Company	Cleveland, Ohio	Steel barb wire fencing.
Rathbone, Sard & Co	Albany, N. Y	Cooking stoves.
Russell and Erwin Manufacturing Company.	New Britain, Conn	Door trimmings.
Do	do	Locks.
Do	do	Art castings.
San José Fruit Packing Company	San José, Cal	Canned fruits.
Schieffelin, W. H., & Co	New York City	Pills and fluid extracts.
Scott Paper Company, Limited	Philadelphia, Pa	Manila paper.
Seabury & Johnson	New York City	Medicinal plasters.
Silver Lake Company	Boston, Mass	Steam packing.
Simpson, Hill, Miller & Co	Wallingford, Conn	Electro-plated ware.
Smith American Organ Company	Boston, Mass	Cabinet organs.
Smith & Wesson	Springfield, Mass	Revolvers.
Smith, William	Pittsburgh, Pa	National gas works.
Stanley Rule and Level Company	New Britain, Conn	Carpenters' tools.
Star Rubber Company	Trenton, N. J	Rubber belting and hose.
Stephens & Woodin	San Francisco, Cal	The Althouse wind-mill.
Sterling School Furniture Company.	Sterling, Ill	School desks.
Tuerk Bros. & Johnson	Chicago, Ill	Water motor.
United States Public Printer	Washington, D. C	Printing.
Valentine & Co	New York City	Varnishes.
Victor Sewing-Machine Company	Middletown, Conn	Chucks and calipers.
Wade, H. D., & Co	New York City	Black printing ink.
Do	do	Colored printing ink.
Ward, Henry A	Rochester, N. Y	Natural history collection.
Do	do	Collection of rocks and minerals.
Warner, Wm. R	Philadelphia, Pa	Sugar-coated pills.
Washburn and Moore Manufacturing Company.	Worcester, Mass	Barbed wire fencing.
Do	do	Farm fencing.
Western Electric Manufacturing Company.	Chicago and New York	Telephones.
Wheeler & Wilson Manufacturing Company.	Bridgeport, Conn	Leather work sewing-machine.
Do	do	Cloth manufacturing sewing-machine.
Whitney, A., & Sons	Philadelphia, Pa	Railway car wheels.
White, S. S., estate of	do	Artificial teeth.
Whiton, M. F., & Co	Boston, Mass	Cordage.
Williams, Thos. C., & Co	Richmond, Va	Manufactured hard tobacco.
Winchester Repeating Arms Company.	New Haven, Conn	Repeating rifles and carbines.
Wood, Walter A	Hoosick Falls, N. Y	Reaper and binder.
Do	do	Reaper and mower.
Yale Lock Manufacturing Company.	Stamford, Conn	Locks.
Young, Ladd & Collin	New York City	Perfumes.

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List of awards, &c.—Continued.

SECOND DEGREE OF MERIT.

Name.	Locality.	Article.
Albert Downing & Co	Concord, N. H	Single Concord buggies.
Albion Paper Company	Holyoke, Mass	Writing-paper.
Ballard, Stephens & Co	New York City	Leather belting.
Bancroft, A. L., & Co	San Francisco, Cal	Lithography.
Barker, J. S	Albany, N. Y	Caligraphy.
Barnard, Henry	Hartford, Conn	Educational publications.
Barrie, George	Philadelphia, Pa	Books.
Belding Bros	Rockville, Conn	Sewing silks.
Burnett, Joseph, & Co	Boston, Mass	Flavoring essences.
Do	do	Eau de Cologne.
Chadborn and Caldwell Manufacturing Company.	Newburgh, N. Y	Lawn mowers.
Colt's Patent Fire-arms Manufacturing Company.	Hartford, Conn	Shot-guns.
Cook, J. W. & J	Portland, Oreg	Columbia River salmon in tins.
Currier & Ives	New York City	Colored lithographs.
Dickey, Albert P	Racine, Wis	Fanning-mills.
Dighton Furnace Company	North Dighton, Mass	Stoves and ranges.
Dunbar, Hobart & Whidden	South Abington Station, Mass.	Nails and tacks.
Eastman & Bro	Philadelphia, Pa	Soaps and perfumes.
Empire Portland Forge Company	Cohoes, N. Y	Forges.
Fairbanks & Co	New York City	Hand and counter scales.
Fall Mountain Paper Company	Bellows Falls, Vt	Manila paper.
Fay, J. A. & Co	Cincinnati, Ohio	Wood-working machines.
Frank & Co	Buffalo, N. Y	Do.
Forbes Lithographic Manufacturing Company.	Boston, Mass	Colored label printing.
Gilbert, Charles & Co	Worcester, Mass	Loom.
Golding & Co	Boston, Mass	Printing-presses.
Gould Manufacturing Company	Seneca Falls, N. Y	Pumps.
Grilley Screw Company	New Haven, Conn	Screws.
Hartshorn, Stewart	New York City	Shade rollers.
Hinckley, E	San Francisco, Cal	Spring mattresses.
Hobbs (J. H.), Brockunier & Co	Wheeling, W. Va	Pressed glass.
Houghton, Mifflin & Co	Boston, Mass	Book-binding.
Howe Scale Company	Rutland, Vt	Hand and counter scales.
Ithaca Calendar Clock Company	Ithaca, N. Y	Calendar clocks.
Johnson, Charles E	Philadelphia, Pa	Black printing inks.
Do	do	Colored printing inks.
Johnson, Clark & Co	New York City	Family sewing-machines.
Do	do	Hand sewing-machines.
Kuntz, William F., & Co	do	Bottled lager beer.
Lawson & Brenizer		
Lee, George	Niagara Falls, N. Y	Cider-mill.
Lloyd, Lawrence & Co	Philadelphia, Pa	Penn lawn mower.
Morris, Wheeler & Co	do	Nails.
North, O. B., & Co	New Haven, Conn	Adjustable carriage top.
Parker Bros	Meriden, Conn	Shot-guns.
Peloubet & Co	New York City	Cabinet organs.
Purdy & Huntington Company, limited.	do	Celluloid jewelry.
Randolph & English	Richmond, Va	Paper boxes.
Remington, E., & Sons	Illinois, N. Y	Type-writer
Rowley & Hermance	Williamsport, Pa	Wood-working machines.
Rumsey & Co	Seneca Falls, N. Y	Pumps.
Shriver, T., & Co	New York City	Copying-press.
Silver Lake Company	Boston, Mass	Cordage.
Smith, H. F		Soda water apparatus.
Spurr, Charles W	Boston, Mass	Veneers.
Taylor & Farley Organ Company	Worcester, Mass	Cabinet organs.
Tillotson, L. G., & Co	New York City	Railway supplies.
Tuttle & Co	San Francisco, Cal	Photographs.
Wamsutta Mills	New Bedford, Mass	Cotton cloths.
Warren, Moses & Co	Chicago, Ill	Publications.
Watson's Portable Forge manufactured by the Cleveland Steam Guage Company.	Cleveland, Ohio	Forges.
Watt & Call	Richmond, Va	Plows.
Wheeler & Wilson Manufacturing Company.	Bridgeport, Conn	Family sewing-maches.
Do	do	Hand sewing-machines.
Whiton, M. F., & Co	Boston, Mass	Canvas.
Williams, Stillings & Co	New York City	Russell's Common-Sense Binder.
Woolworth & Graham	do	Paper.
Young, Ladd & Coffin	do	Eau de Cologne.
Blatchley, Charles G	Philadelphia, Pa	Ice-cream freezers.

List of awards, &c.—Continued.

THIRD DEGREE OF MERIT.

Name.	Locality.	Article.
Bancroft, A. L. & Co	San Francisco, Cal	Lithographic printing.
Bane, Thomas, & Co	Chicago, Ill	School desk.
Burnett, Joseph & Co	Boston, Mass	Perfumes and essences.
Carter & Dinsmore & Co	do	Mucilage.
Cummings, John, & Co	do	Calf (leather.)
Currier & Ives	New York City	Colored lithographs.
Enterprise Manufacturing Company.	Philadelphia, Pa	Coffee mills.
Gill, Thomas	New York City	Borax soap.
Ives, Hobart B	New Haven, Conn	Door bolts.
Juvet & Co	Canajoharie, N. Y	Time globes.
Lovegrove & Co	Philadelphia, Pa	Steam engine.
Mills, F. B	San Francisco, Cal	Caligraphy.
Milton Bradley & Co	Springfield, Mass	Toys.
Nonotuck Silk Company	Florence, Mass	Sewing silk.
Osborne, D. M., & Co	Auburn, N. Y	Reaper and binder.
Page Belting Company	Concord, N. H	Leather belting.
Palm & Fechtelet	New York City	Silk transfers.
Peabody, Henry W., & Co	Boston, Mass	Wooden doors.
Peddie, T. B., & Co	Newark, N. J	Bags and portmanteaus.
Philadelphia Novelty Company	Philadelphia, Pa	Toys.
Rogers, John	New York City	Statuary.
Rumpp, C. F	Philadelphia, Pa	Leather goods.
Sautifaller, J. B	New York City	Wood carved pipes.
Schultz, Southwick & Co	do	Leather.
Stafford, Samuel S	do	Copying inks.
Do	do	Black writing inks.
Do	do	Colored writing inks.
Wallace & Sons	Ansonia, Conn	Carbons.
Williams Brothers	Ithaca, N. Y	Horse hay-rake.
Do	do	Farm engines.
Winship, William W	Boston, Mass	Trunks.
Woven Wire Mattress Company	Hartford, Conn	Wire mattresses.

OTHER AWARDS.

Bradley Hubbard Manufacturing Company.	West Meriden, Conn	Clocks.
Coon, William L	Wakefield, Mass	Model of a steam engine.
Demorest, Madame	New York City	Paper patterns.
Harris & Co	Boston, Mass	Weather vanes.
Hobbs, Brockunier & Co	Wheeling, W. Va	Glassware.
Juvet & Co	Canajoharie, N. Y	Celestial globes.
Mayer, Strouse & Co	New Haven, Conn	Corsets.
McLaughlin Bros	New York City	Mechanical toys.
New Haven Folding Chair Company.	New Haven, Conn	Folding chairs.
New York (The) Plow Company	New York City	Corn sheller.
Perkins Institute and Massachusetts School for the Blind.	South Boston, Mass	Books for the blind.
Purdy & Huntington Company, limited.	New York City	Celluloid collars and cuffs.
Sanders Enno, Ph. D	Saint Louis, Mo	Veterinary surgeon's medicine chests.
Sautifaller, J. B	New York City	Wood carvings.
Scott Paper Company, limited	Philadelphia, Pa	Papoleum.
Supplee Needle Company	do	Sewing needles.
Vail, E. W	Worcester, Mass	Folding chairs.
Victor Noiseless Slate Company	Chicago, Ill	School slates.
Wakefield Rattan Company	Boston, Mass	Rattan chairs.
Weber, Ph. C	Philadelphia, Pa	Oil painting.
West Haven Buckle Company	West Haven, Conn	Buckles.
Wooten Desk Company	Indianapolis, Ind	Combination desk.

AMERICAN VS. ENGLISH MANUFACTURES IN NEW ZEALAND.

REPORT BY CONSUL KING, OF BIRMINGHAM.

One of the leading papers of this town has recently published two letters, copies of which I herewith inclose, which have a certain interest for American readers. The one is from an Englishman in New Zealand and refers to the introduction of American goods to that country; the other is a reply to the first, written by an Englishman at home, and contains some suggestions of interest.

It appears to me that as long as English manufacturers talk and write in this way of American competition our chances of success in such competition are so great as to amount almost to a certainty, even though timely warnings are sent to England from the ends of the earth.

The paragraph in the second letter in regard to American plated goods emboldens me to refer to my dispatch No. 30, in which I wrote my opinion that scamping and slovenliness at the factory and dishonesty among the middle men must be strictly guarded against and severely punished if we are to succeed.

WILSON KING,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Birmingham, March 29, 1881.

AMERICAN COMPETITION IN NEW ZEALAND.

(OPINION OF THE ENGLISHMAN ABROAD.)

To the Editor of the Daily Post:

SIR: I wish, if you will kindly find room, to draw the attention of the English manufacturers to the Yankee doings in this colony.

First, with regard to reaping and binding machines, the Americans—as much I believe to their own surprise as that of any one else—enjoy, and have done for the last few years, an entire monopoly of the Australian colonial trade for these machines. The profit on the above must certainly not be small, when we see the way the manufacturers advertise, and the expense they go to in sending experienced men to every individual farmer who purchases one of their machines, to instruct him in the working of them. There is nothing in the material of these machines that I know of that cannot be obtained as cheap, if not cheaper, in England than in America; yet the makers of the McCormick, Woods, Deering, and Osborne binders have this large market virtually in their own hands. There is one great disadvantage, too, that America has to contend against, which is the great scarcity of sailing ships between the two countries, and also the length of time occupied in the voyage when there is a vessel.

For the last few years also, the wire used by these machines has been obtained from America; but this year the English make which has been imported is not only equally good for the work but is also cheaper, and consequently has superseded the American. With regard to the above, I may state that the use of twine for binding is fast taking the place of wire, so that it is a question if very much more wire will be required for the purpose.

The next thing I would refer to is the great quantity of light cast-steel hay and manure forks used yearly out here, which I notice are all of American make. I see by the home papers that the English makers are able to compete with the Yankee in these articles, both in price and quality; yet in this market there is as yet no attempt to oust the Americans.

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The above remarks also apply to axes, tomahawks, and hammers, of which I find the colonial iron-monger far more ready to purchase the American than those of English make. The Yankees are also introducing at the present time saws and many other carpenters' tools, and door locks, which are considered better quality than those usually supplied by English merchants.

In all parts of the colony, too, you will find American travelers pushing their goods: and I think, now steam communication with this part of the world is so good and cheap, it would be advisable for some of the English manufacturers to have ocular demonstration of a market that promises to be at some future time by no means an unimportant one.

Apologizing for the trouble I am causing you,

I remain, yours, &c.,

A BIRMINGHAM MAN ABROAD.

SOUTHBRIDGE, CANTERBURY, NEW ZEALAND,
January 25, 1881.

AMERICAN COMPETITION IN NEW ZEALAND.

(OPINION OF THE ENGLISHMAN AT HOME.)

To the Editor of the Daily Post:

SIR: Your correspondent, "A Birmingham Man Abroad," who called attention in your columns to American competition in New Zealand, merely re-echoes the experiences of numerous other writers whose letters you have published from time to time. It is simply the oft-repeated story that American manufacturers are successful in selling in our colonies such articles as hay-forks, hoes, shovels, axes, and a few of the lighter agricultural machines, the fact being that they have done a large foreign trade in these articles for the last thirty years, and they will probably continue to do so for reasons which every manufacturer of these articles is well acquainted with.

In the broader aspect of the case, however, it is by no means difficult to show that American competition is a mere bugbear, and has been made a great deal too much of. The board of trade returns do not show any substantial falling off in the imports of hardware to the British colonies, and this is a fairly good criterion to judge by. But, further than this, I contend that the American manufacturers do not make to any great extent the class of goods which our customers require. Some time ago I was invited by the London agent of three of the largest American hardware companies to inspect their patterns. I did so, and was astonished to find how few of the articles were of such shape and pattern as would be likely to compete with English goods, which have retained the hold of our markets for the last fifty years. Beyond the articles I first mentioned, there were not a dozen I could select as being likely to sell in any market I am acquainted with. Of apple-parers, egg-beaters, and the various other domestic implements, there were plenty, but the cheaper class of locks, padlocks, hinges, &c., were conspicuous by their absence, whilst the better class of these goods were far too dear for general sale. This experience was confirmed by an inspection of the American exhibits at the last Paris exhibition.

Some time ago our electro-plate manufacturers were threatened with extinction as regards the colonial trade by the competition of American makers, whose designs were said to be so superb, and the finish so superior, that English manufacturers were completely distanced. But this, like other "scares," has completely died out. The fact is that American makers of these goods almost universally use Britannia metal as a basis instead of German silver; hence, the goods being soft, wear badly, and cannot easily be repaired if broken.

My firm opinion, and it is one founded upon experience, is that it will take a generation for the American manufacturers to obtain such a knowledge of the various patterns of English hardware goods as to enable them seriously to compete with us; and even then we shall be able to beat them in the important element of cost.

Yours, truly,

W. HERBERT WILLIAMS.

93 NEWHALL STREET, BIRMINGHAM,
March 28, 1881.

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TRADE BETWEEN NEW ZEALAND AND THE UNITED STATES.

REPORT BY CONSUL GRIFFIN, OF AUCKLAND.

The publication of the government statistics for the year 1879, a copy of which has been kindly forwarded to me by the inspector of customs at Wellington, enables me to place before you the subjoined information in regard to the trade and commerce between New Zealand and the United States. The total results of the direct trade between the two countries for that year amounted to the sum of $2,380,146.99.

The value of the imports from the United States was $2,133,145.24, and the exports were $290,424.08, thus showing a balance of $1,852,991.15 in favor of the imports. In other words, New Zealand buys from the United States $1,852,991 more than she sells therefor. Of the different cities in New Zealand Dunedin appears to take the lead in cultivating the trade with the United States. Of the American imports that city receives $774,486.42; Lyttleton, the port of entry of Christchurch, $655,-326.62; Auckland, $396,983.16; Wellington, $320,518.34; Nelson, $32,-990.68. The remainder was received at Timauru, Waugamie, New Plymouth, Greymouth, Russell, &c. It must be borne in mind that New Zealand is a rich and prosperous colony, and that she is fast recovering from the financial depression under which she has been laboring for several years past.

The customs returns for 1880, although not yet published, reveal the interesting fact that the exports for the first time in the history of the colony exceed in value the imports. The subjoined table shows the exports and imports for each year since 1873.

	Exports.	Imports.
1873	$27, 303, 431 50	$31, 461, 045 55
1874	25, 555, 825 71	39, 525, 610 28
1875	28, 365, 596 15	38, 630, 768 45
1876	27, 560, 484 76	33, 604, 655 18
1877	30, 803, 275 23	33, 936, 836 03
1878	29, 276, 005 62	42, 610, 309 55
1879	22, 749, 492 90	40, 747, 755 36
1880	30, 916, 010 88	29, 988, 042 73

I inclose herewith an abstract of the principal articles of American imports into the colony of New Zealand for the year 1879.* Amongst the articles imported are machinery, agricultural implements, locomotives, railway carriages, steam-engines, sewing-machines, hardware, iron-mongery, edge tools, tobacco, cigars, cigarettes, kerosene, linseed oil, wooden ware, furniture, drugs, druggists' ware, patent medicines, toilet articles, perfumery, timber, carriages, carts, watches, clocks, jewelry, bone dust, leather, saddlery and harness, musical instruments, boots and shoes, doors and sash, paints, plated ware, paper hangings, colors, canned fruits, vegetables, apples, currants, salmon, Indian corn, barley, seed grass, clover, &c., &c.

It will be seen from this abstract that the value of the imports of American machinery, exclusive of locomotives, railway carriages, &c., was $284,016.00. There is a steady demand for agricultural implements, Deering's new string binding Marsh harvesters, McCormick's and Wood's reapers and binders, Osborne's reapers and binders, &c., but the ma-

* See pages 877–879.

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chines without binders in use are principally of English make. Plows and harrows used here are also of English manufacture. This is partly due to the fact that no great effort has been made to familiarize New Zealand farmers with similar articles of American manufacture. There is also a prejudice against the use of plows with wooden beams and handles. If American plows were made with iron handles and beams there would be little difficulty in introducing them into this market.

The agents of American houses that have been to see me are of the opinion that they will have little opposition in pushing the sale of their goods and wares in the future. They do not regard the tariff as prohibitory; at least no unfair discrimination is made against articles imported from the United States. The customs duties of New Zealand apply just as well to articles from Great Britain as from other countries. I inclose herewith a list of duties and exemptions under the customs and tariff acts of New Zealand, revised and corrected to the latest date.*

It will be seen from this list that with the exception of spirits, cordials, tobacco, and a few other articles upon which special duties are levied, that the rates of duty are 15 per cent. ad valorem.

The principal articles that come free are machinery for agricultural purposes; machinery for boring, brick and tile making; mills, looms; machinery for wool and hay pressing; all materials which may be specially imported for the construction of bridges, wharves, jetties, or patent slips; anvils, anchors, iron, common or black sheet iron, lamp posts, plain galvanized sheet iron, plates, rivets, bolts, nuts, screws, and castings for ships; rod, bolt, bar, hoop, and pig iron; printing machinery, presses, type, and printing ink; pumps, and other apparatus for raising water; railway plants, and all materials which may be specially imported for the construction of railways and tramways; sail cloth, sailmakers' seaming and roping twine; sewing machines, organs, harmonicons; furniture for places of public worship; carriage material, springs, mountings, trimmings, &c.; shoemakers' and saddlers' sewing-machines and silk twist; school books, slates, and apparatus; bookbinders' cloth, webbing, &c. Sewing-machines are admitted free of duty, and it is strange that so few come from the United States. It is said that they can be made cheaper and better in Europe, and landed in Auckland at lower rates than they can be imported direct from the United States. In 1878 the total value of sewing-machines imported into New Zealand from the United States was only $2,725; in 1879 it was $8,107.75. There was a much larger increase in the year 1880, but notwithstanding this increase the value of the imports of sewing-machines from Great Britain still exceeds that from the United States nearly tenfold. The cost of freight upon sewing-machines direct from New York to Auckland is from 60 to 70 shillings ($14.59 to $16.99) per ton, while the cost from London is 40 shillings ($9.73) per ton. The duty upon leather is 15 per cent. ad valorem.

The value of the imports of leather from Great Britain for the year 1879 was $163,450, whilst that from the United States was only $26,172.57; but, small as the latter amount is, it shows an increase of fully 50 per cent. over the amount of the previous year. The superior quality of American sole leather is beginning to be appreciated in Europe, and I have reason to believe that it is only a question of time as to its becoming very generally in use here.

Almost every day we hear of new projects for bringing New Zealand and the other Australasian colonies into closer communication with the

* See customs tariff of New Zealand, following immediately after this report.

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United States and Europe. Besides the canal across the isthmus at Panama and the Nicaraguan canal, there is talk of laying an ocean cable from San Francisco to Honolulu, Hawaiian Islands, and from thence to New Zealand and New South Wales. Indeed, it is claimed that a company has already been organized in the United States with the requisite capital for laying this cable, and that work upon it will be commenced at once.

A French line of steamers will soon ply between Havre and these colonies, and a German steamship line is also spoken of.* The encouragement given the Pacific Mail Steamship Company by the United States, the fortnightly or weekly mail service by way of Brindisi and the Suez Canal, the success of the expositions at Sydney and Melbourne, the profitable shipments of fresh meat to Europe by means of refrigerating machines, the vast increase in the number of sheep and cattle, the discovery of the Te Aroha gold mines, and many other things which I need not pause to mention, all bespeak the growing importance of the colonies.

I learn from various sources, both here and in the United States, of renewed efforts being made to foster the trade between New Zealand and the United States. There are now more vessels on their way from the United States to New Zealand than ever before left America in the same length of time. The Beatrice Havener arrived at Auckland with a valuable cargo of kerosene and rosin a few weeks ago, and she is to be followed by the Superior, Mable, Progress, Orient, and several other vessels, each containing assorted cargoes for this market.

G. W. GRIFFIN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Auckland, N. Z., March 1, 1881.

Abstract of the quantities and value of the principal articles of imports into New Zealand from the United States.

Articles.	Quantities.		Value.
	Duty paid or free on first importation.	Warehoused.	
Machinery:			
Agricultural	5,903 packages		$102,067 68
Mill	59 packages		6,551 84
For sawing and planing	74 packages		13,280 95
Steam engines	15 packages		63,912 73
Sewing machines	232 packages		8,107 75
Other kinds	1,123 packages		30,995 90
Total			284,016 85
Tobacco	835¼ pounds	U. S. A. on the Atlantic: 205¼ tierces, 30½ tierces, 3,161 cases, 242 boxes, 115¾ boxes. U. S. A. on the Pacific: 203 cases, 50¾ boxes, 1¼ tierces, 3 cases, 2 boxes.	234,521 45
Cigars	447 pounds	22 cases, 10 packages	6,671 44
Hardware and ironmongery	8,698 packages		171,752 56

*A line from Hamburg will soon be established.

Abstract of the quantities and value of the principal articles of imports, &c.—Continued.

Articles.	Quantities.		Value.
	Duty paid or free on first importation.	Warehoused.	
Oils:			
Kerosene	139,680 gallons	54,360 cases	$161,746 31
Linseed	70 gallons		3,300 28
Other kinds	9,464 gallons		7,562 69
Total			172,618 28
Railway plants:			
Carriages	14		40,003 45
Locomotives	7		38,732 44
Other kinds	Value		62,098 81
Furniture	8,977 packages		104,933 62
Druggists' ware	1,112 packages	360 cases, 955 packages	56,102 68
Drugs	464 packages	302 cases, 1,062 packages.	25,705 38
Total			82,[illegible] 06
Timber:			
Sawn and dressed	1,204,409 feet		42,378 35
Undressed	899,308 feet		24,868 32
Laths	1,523,150		5,216 99
Logs and piles	98		1,695 17
Total			74,098 83
Seeds:			
Grass and clover	13,125 bushels		54,539 98
Other kinds	248 packages		6,995 97
Total			61,535 95
Fish:			
Potted and preserved	6,680 packages	621 cases, 2,982 packages.	52,355 88
Salted	636 cwt		4,744 93
Total			57,100 81
Tools	1,736 packages		54,749 25
Grain:			
Barley	26,217 bushels		45,220 44
Beans and peas	55 bushels	323 bags	484 46
Maize	11,091½ bushels		7,236 36
Other kinds	1 package		14 59
Total			52,955 85
Books	206 packages		51,293 96
Carriages:			
Carriages and carts	389 packages	17 packages	47,799 74
Perambulators	74 packages		3,309 75
Carriage material	Value only		29,075 58
Total			80,185 07
Woodware	9,626 packages	464 packages	36,144 23
Watches and clocks	1,046 packages	159 packages	35,699 17
Watchmakers' material	9 packages		710 52
Total			36,409 69
Bones and bonedust	930 tons		33,925 06
Leather	184 cwt., 2 quarters	8 bales, 6 packages	26,172 37
Ware	12 packages		496 39
Total			26,668 96
Agricultural implements	1,135 packages		25,758 91

Abstract of the quantities and value of the principal articles of imports, &c.—Continued.

Articles.	Quantities.		Value.
	Duty paid or free on first importation.	Warehoused.	
Fruits:			
Bottled and preserved	646 packages	350 packages	$6,419 04
Dried	725 cwt., 3 quarters	580 packages	7,358 29
Currants		140 packages	705 65
Green	4,027 packages		8,263 48
Total			22,746 46
Pumps	3,749		21,568 77
Turpentine and varnish	17,608½ gallons	957 casks, 95 packages	16,511 90
Instruments:			
Musical, not pianos	190 packages	14 packages	15,470 92
Optical			
Scientifical	6 packages		180 06
Surgical	5 packages		257 92
Total			16,908 88
Slates	462,212		15,417 38
Cottons	113 packages	34 packages	15,281 12
Cotton waste	1 package		58 39
Plated ware	123 packages	7 packages	15,149 72
Malzena and corn	3,247 cwt., 260 packages.		13,086 28
Fancy goods	417 packages		12,838 09
Saddlery and harness	70 packages		11,903 70
Boots and shoes	120 packages		10,118 19
Brushes and brooms	184 packages	11 packages	9,358 09
Nails and screws	398 cwt		9,285 47
Perfumery	119 packages	70 cases, 358 packages	8,565 21
Iron	107 tons, 9 cwt., 2 quarters.		8,394 88
Doors and sash	2,612		6,754 84
Sugar	4 tons, 4 cwt., 1 quarter.	230 kegs, 160 casks, 2 mats, 150 cases.	5,903 18
Paints and colors	472 cwt		5,698 78
Oilmen's stores	925 packages	440 packages	5,606 32
Resin	1,394 barrels		5,420 25
Spirits:			
Brandy	2 gallons	7 cases	43 79
Cordials	¾ gallon	10 packages	43 79
Geneva		245 cases	598 59
Whisky	1½ gallons	4 cases	34 06
Rum	7 gallons	61½ cases	2,029 37
Perfumed	146½ gallons	34 cases	1,435 64
Other kinds	1 gallon	113 cases	832 18
Hops	187 cwt., 2 quarters	10 bales, 21 tuk., 20 packages.	4,983 39
Jewelry	3 packages		1,231 24

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KEROSENE OIL AND LAMPS—NEW ZEALAND.

REPORT BY CONSUL GRIFFIN, OF NEW ZEALAND.

I have the honor to inclose herewith (Inclosure No. 1) an abstract of the quantity and value of kerosene imported in Auckland for the year 1880. It will be seen from the abstract that the number of gallons was 91,728, and that the value amounted to £4,620 ($22,176). The customs returns of the value and quantity of kerosene imported into the colony of New Zealand for the year 1880 have not been printed, but to judge from the returns of the port of Auckland the quantity has not been so great as that of the year 1879.

It is probable, however, that there has been no falling off in the amount cleared from the government warehouses. The number of gallons imported into all the ports of the colony for the year 1879, as will be seen by the abstract marked Inclosure No. 2, was 171,058, and the value was £36,105 ($173,304). In 1878 the number of gallons imported was 311,063 and the value was £59,592 ($286,041.60). The quantity cleared from the government warehouse for home consumption for that year was 337,833 gallons while the quantity cleared for the year 1879 was 467,461 gallons. The present duty upon kerosene is 6*d.* (12 cents) per gallon. The brands used here are Devoe's, Diamond, and Downer's. The latter, however, is a high-test oil and is used only in limited quantities.

The importers usually receive kerosene from the commission merchants of New York, Messrs. Arnold, Hines & Co., of that city, being the largest exporters of oil to New Zealand; they have a branch house n Auckland. The following is a list of the principal Auckland importers of kerosene:

List of firms importing kerosene at Auckland, N. Z.—Messrs. Arnold, Hines & Co., Owen & Graham, L. D. Nathan & Co., H. B. Morton, T. and S. Morrin, G. W. Owen & Co., Brown, Barrett & Co., J. & I. Dickey.

Price of kerosene and freight, &c.—The wholesale price of kerosene in bond, per gallon, is 1*s.* 3*d.* (30 cents). The cost of freight upon kerosene from New York to New Zealand is estimated at 3½*d.* (7 cents) per gallon, to which should be added about 25 cents per gallon to cover miscellaneous charges, interest, loss by leakage, &c.

Prospects of the kerosene trade for 1881.—The merchants here are of the opinion that the imports of kerosene for the year 1881 will be larger than those of 1878, 1879, or 1880. The excellent quality of the oil, and the cheapness of the price, in spite of the duty upon it, have brought it into general use. The Maori, or native race, are no longer afraid of it and are beginning to light their "whares" with it instead of candles, or fibers dipped in grease.

American kerosene lamps—I am glad to be able to report an increased demand for American kerosene lamps. The English lamps used here have burners of American manufacture. The American lamps are fully as cheap and are more tastefully executed.

G. W. GRIFFIN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Auckland, N. Z., February 1, 1881.

Return of the quantity and value of kerosene imported into the port of Auckland, New Zealand, for the year ending December 31, 1880.

Number of cases.	Gallons.	Value.
11,460	91,728	£4,626 $22,200 80

Return of the quantity and value of kerosene imported into the colony of New Zealand for the year 1879.

Countries whence imported.	Quantities. No. of gallons.	Quantities. Warehoused.	Value.	Cleared from warehouse for home consumption.	Rate of duty.	Amount of duty received.
		Cases.		*Gallons.*		
United Kingdom	2,000	600	£652			
New South Wales	2,172		189			
Victoria	27,206	400	2,028			
United States of America:						
On the Atlantic	139,600	54,600	33,232			
On the Pacific	80		4			
	171,058	55,360	36,105 $173,304	467,461	6*d*. per gallon. 12 cents per gallon.	£15,962 19*s*. 2*d*. $76,622 20.

CUSTOMS TARIFF OF NEW ZEALAND.

List of duties and exemptions under the customs-tariff acts of 1866, 1867, 1871, 1873, 1878, 1879, *and* 1880.

[Transmitted to the Department by Consul Griffin, of Auckland.]

Names of articles.	Rates of duty.
Accouterments	Free.
Ale, porter, beer of all sorts, cider, and perry, in bottle	1*s*. 6*d*. the gallon.
Ale, porter, beer of all sorts, cider, and perry, in bulk	1*s*. 3*d*. the gallon.
Ale and beer, condensed	To be assessed. (See "Tariff act, 1880.")
Almonds, in shell	2*d*. the pound.
Almonds, shelled, not otherwise enumerated	3*d*. the pound.
Almonds, Barbary, Sicily, and French, used in confectioners' manufactures	Free.
Ammunition—sporting powder	6*d*. the pound.
Anchors	Free.
Anvils	Do.
Apparel and ready-made clothing, and all articles made up wholly or in part from silk, cotton, linen, or wool, or of other or of mixed materials	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Apples, dried	1*d*. the pound.
Arrowroot	Free.
Arsenic	Do.
Axles, axle arms and boxes	Do.
Bacon and hams	Do.
Bagging and bags not otherwise enumerated	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Baking powder	Do.
Baskets and wickerware	Free.
Beef, salted	Do.
Bellows	Do.
Bicarbonate of soda	1*s*. the cwt.
Biscuits, plain and unsweetened	3*s*. the cwt.
Biscuits, fancy	2*d*. the pound.
Bitters	14*s*. the gallon.
Blacking	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Black lead	Do.
Blacksmiths' bellows	Free.

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List of duties and exemptions under the customs tariff acts, &c.—Continued.

Names of articles.	Rates of duty.
Blankets	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Blasting powder	Free.
Blind cord and tape	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Blue	1*d.* the pound.
Bolts and nuts	Free.
Bonnets	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Bookbinders' cloth, leather, thread, headbands, webbing, endpapers, tacketing gut, marbling colors, marble paper, and blue paste for ruling-ink	Free.
Boot elastic	Do.
Boots and shoes:	
Men's, No. 6 and upward	12*s.* per dozen pairs.
Youths', Nos. 1 to 5	10*s.* per dozen pairs.
Boys', Nos. 10 to 13	6*s.* per dozen pairs.
Women's, No. 3 and upward	8*s.* per dozen pairs.
Girls', Nos. 10 to 2	6*s.* per dozen pairs.
Girls', Nos. 7 to 9	5*s.* per dozen pairs.
Children's, Nos. 0 to 6, and slippers	2*s.* per dozen pairs.
Women's lasting and stuff boots, without military heels	5*s.* per dozen pairs.
Goloshes of all kinds	2*s.* 6*d.* per dozen pairs.
Slippers, without military heels, other than children's	3*s.* per dozen pairs.
Boot and shoe vamps and uppers	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Bottles of all kinds, empty	Free.
Brass, in pigs, bars, or sheets	Do.
Brass manufactures not otherwise enumerated	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Brass tubing and stamped work in the rough for gasaliers and brackets	Free.
Brushware not otherwise enumerated, and brooms	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Buckets and tubs, of wood or iron	Do.
Buggy shafts, bent wheel-rims and other bent carriage timber	Free.
Building materials not otherwise enumerated	Do.
Butter	Do.
Cabin furniture and effects which have been in use and not imported for sale	Do.
Candied peel	3*d.* the pound.
Candles, tallow	½*d.* the pound.
Candles, other than tallow	1½*d.* the pound.
Capers	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Caps, apparel	Do.
Caps, percussion	1*s.* the thousand.
Card and mill boards	Free.
Cards, playing (after being stamped or marked)	6*d.* the pack.
Carpet-bags	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Carpets	Do.
Carpets of hemp, coir, or jute	Do.
Carraway seeds	Do.
Carriages, carts, drays, and wagons	Do.
Carriage and cart wheels	Do.
Carriage and cart shafts, spokes, fellies, and naves, in the rough	Free.
Carriage springs, mountings and trimmings, bolts and nuts, tire-bolts, shackle-holders, and other iron fittings for carriages	Do.
Carriage and coach builders' rubber cloth	Do.
Catsup	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Cement and plaster of Paris	1*s.* the barrel.
Chaff	10*s.* the ton.
Chain cables and shackles over ½ inch diameter	Free.
Chain, iron	Do.
Chamois leather	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Cheese	Free.
Chicory	3*d.* the pound.
China ware, porcelain, and Parian ware	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Chocolate	3*d.* the pound.
Churns	Free.
Chutney	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Cigars and cigarettes	6*s.* the pound.
Clocks and watches	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Clogs and pattens	Free.
Cocoa	3*d.* the pound.
Cocoa beans	1*d.* the pound.
Cod liver oil	Free.
Coffee, raw	3*d.* the pound.
Coffee, roasted	5*d.* the pound.
Coffee, essence of	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Coir and coir yarn	Free.
Collars and cuffs, of paper or other material	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Combs	Do.
Confectionery not otherwise enumerated	Do.
Confectionery, viz., boiled sugars, comfits, lozenges, Scotch mixtures, and sugar candy	2*d.* the pound.
Copper and composition rod, bolts, sheathing, and nails	Free.
Copper manufactures not otherwise enumerated	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Copper, in pigs, bars, or sheets	Free.
Copying presses	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Cordials	14*s.* the gallon.

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List of duties and exemptions under the customs tariff acts, &c.—Continued.

Names of articles.	Rates of duty.
Corks, bottling	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Cork soles	Free.
Corn sacks	Do.
Corn sieves and riddles	Do.
Cotton counterpanes	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Cotton manufactures not otherwise enumerated, and all articles made of cotton mixed with any other material	Do.
Cotton waste	Free.
Crab winches, cranes, capstans, and windlasses	Do.
Cream of tartar	1*d*. the lb.
Curry powder and paste	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Cutlery	Do.
Desks	Do.
Doors, plain	2*s*. each.
Doors, glazed with ornamental glass	4*s*. each.
Drainage pipes and tiles	Free.
Drapery not otherwise enumerated	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Dressing cases	Do.
Drugs and druggists' sundries and apothecaries' wares	Do.
Drugget	Do.
Earthenware	Do.
Engravings, prints, drawings, paintings, and pictures	Do.
Essences, flavoring	Do.
Essential oils	Free.
Felt for sheathing	Do.
Filters	Do.
Fine iron, brass, and copper wire, and woodware for use in brushmaking	Do.
Fire engines and hose	Do.
Fireworks	Do.
Fish, dried, pickled, or salted	2*s*. the cwt.
Fish, potted and preserved	1*d*. per pound or reputed package of that weight, and so in proportion for packages of greater or less reputed weight.
Fish paste	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Fish oil, in bulk	Free.
Floor cloth	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Flour bags	Free.
Forfar sheeting	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Forges	Free.
Fowling-pieces, rifles, and other fire-arms	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Fruits, bottled	1*s*. the dozen.
Fruits, preserved in sirup	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Fruits, dried	2*d*. the pound.
Furniture and cabinetware	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Furs	Do.
Gas pipes and machinery, and all material which may be specially imported for the construction of gasworks	Free.
Gelatine	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Glass, crown, sheet, and common window	2*s*. the 100 feet superficial.
Glass, plate, polished, colored, and other kinds not otherwise enumerated	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Glassware	Do.
Globes and chimneys for lamps	Do.
Glucose	½*d*. the pound.
Glue	Free.
Glycerine	Do.
Grain and pulse of every kind not otherwise enumerated	9*d*. the hundred pounds.
Grain and pulse when ground or in any way manufactured	1*s*. the hundred pounds.
Grindery, heel and toe plates only	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Grindery (excepting heel and toe plates), boot lining, lasts, and shoemakers' wooden pegs	Free.
Groats, prepared	Do.
Gunny bags	Do.
Gutta-percha manufactures, not being wearing apparel, and not otherwise enumerated	Do.
Haberdashery	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Hair brushes	Do.
Hair seating, curled hair, upholsterers' webbing, and metal springs	Free.
Hardware	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Harness	Do.
Hatters' silk plush, felt hoods, shellac, galloons, calicoes, and spale boards for hat boxes	Free.
Hats	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Hessians	Do.
Hickory, unwrought	Free.
Hickory spokes	Do.
Hogskins and saddletrees	Do.
Hollw ware	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Hops	6*d*. the pound.
Horseshoes	15 per cent ad valorem.

List of duties and exemptions under the customs tariff acts, &c.—Continued.

Names of articles.	Rates of duty.
Hosiery	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Ink, writing	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Iron bridges, and all material which may be specially imported for the construction of bridges, wharves, jetties, or patent slips	Free.
Iron, common or black sheet	Do.
Iron fencing wire, staples, and standards, straining posts, and apparatus	1*s.* the cwt.
Iron gates and gate-posts	4*s.* the cwt.
Iron, galvanized, corrugated sheets, ridging, guttering, spouting, washers, screws, nails, and wire netting	£2 the ton.
Iron galvanized tiles and rivets	1*s.* the cwt.
Iron lamp-posts	Free.
Iron, plain galvanized sheet	Do.
Iron plates, rivets, bolts, nuts, screws, and castings for ships	Do.
Iron rod, bolt, bar, hoop, and pig	Do.
Iron tanks	5*s.* each.
Iron weighbridges for carts	Free.
Iron wire (except fencing)	Do.
Iron-mongery	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Isinglass	Do.
Jams, jellies, marmalade, and preserves	1*d.* per pound or reputed package of that weight, and so in proportion for packages of greater or less reputed weight.
Japanned and lacquered metal ware	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Jewelry	Do.
Lamps, lanterns, and lamp wick	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Lead and composition piping	3*s.* 6*d.* the cwt.
Lead manufactures not otherwise enumerated	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Lead, in pigs, bars, or sheets	Free.
Leather, sole	½*d.* the pound.
Leather, other kinds	1*d.* the pound.
Leather bags	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Leather cut into shapes	Do.
Leather-cloth bags	Do.
Leather cloth	Do.
Leather leggings	Do.
Leather manufactures not otherwise enumerated	Do.
Lignum-vitæ	Free.
Linen manufactures not otherwise enumerated, and all articles made of linen mixed with any other materials	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Liquors	14*s.* the gallon.
Licorice	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Looking glasses	Do.
Macaroni	Free.
Machinery for agricultural purposes	Do.
Machinery for boring, brick and tile making, planing, punching, sawing, shearing, turning, and quartz-crushing	Do.
Machinery for mills and looms	Do.
Machinery for steam vessels	Do.
Machinery for wool and hay pressing	Do.
Machine saws	Do.
Maize	Do.
Maizena and corn flour	Do.
Malt	2*s.* the bushel.
Mantel-pieces	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Maps and charts	Free.
Matches of all kinds	25 per cent. ad valorem.
Mats	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Matting	Do.
Meats, potted and preserved	Do.
Metal frames for bags and sachels	Free.
Metal sheaves for blocks	Do.
Milk, preserved	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Millinery	Do.
Morocco, roan, japanned and enamelled, leather, and seal-skins and goat-skins	Free.
Musical instruments	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Mustard	1*d.* the pound.
Nails not otherwise enumerated	3*s.* the cwt.
Naphtha	6*d.* the gallon.
Nuts of all kinds, except cocoanuts	2*d.* the pound.
Oil, candlenut	Free.
Oil, mineral	6*d.* the gallon.
Oil, olive, in bulk	Free.
Oil, palm	Do.
Oil, perfumed	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Oil, rhodium	Free.
Oil, vegetable, in bulk (except olive, palm, and candlenut)	6*d.* the gallon.
Oil, vegetable or other, in bottle	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Oil, not otherwise described	6*d.* the gallon.

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List of duties and exemptions under customs tariff acts, &c.—Continued.

Names of articles.	Rates of duty.
Olives	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Opium	£1 the pound.
Organs, harmoniums, bells, and furniture, specially imported for places of public worship	Free.
Oysters, preserved	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Paints mixed ready for use	2*s.* the cwt.
Paints, wet or dry, other than paints mixed ready for use	Free.
Paper bags	5*s.* the cwt.
Paperhangings	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Paper, wrapping, brown	2*s.* the cwt.
Paper, wrapping, other kinds	2*s.* 6*d.* the cwt.
Paper, writing, not otherwise enumerated	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Paper, writing, of sizes not less than the size known as "demy," when in original wrappers and with uncut edges, as it leaves the mill	Free.
Papier maché ware	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Passengers' baggage	Free.
Pearl barley	1*s.* the cwt.
Peanuts (African) for manufacture of oil	Free.
Pease, split	1*s.* the cwt.
Pepper and pimento, unground	1*d.* the pound.
Pepper, Cayenne	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Perambulators	Free.
Perfumery and toilet preparations not otherwise enumerated	25 per cent. ad valorem.
Phosphorus	Free.
Photographic goods	Do.
Pickles	9*d.* per dozen pints or reputed pints, and in the same proportion for larger or smaller sizes.
Picture frames	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Pitch and tar	Free.
Pipes and tobacco	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Plate, gold and silver	Do.
Plated wa e	Do.
Ploughs and harrows	Free.
Pork, salted	Do.
Portmanteaus	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Printed books, papers, and music	Free.
Printing machinery, presses, type, and materials; printing ink and paper	Do.
Provisions, preserved, not otherwise enumerated	Do.
Pumps and apparatus for raising water	Do.
Railway plant, and all materials which may be specially imported for the construction of railways and tramways	Do.
Raspberry vinegar	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Rice	½*d.* the pound.
Rice ground	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Rope and cordage	5*s.* the cwt.
Rosin	Free.
Rugs, woolen, cotton, or opossum	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Saddlery	Do.
Saddlers' ironmongery, hames and mounts for harness	Free.
Sad irons	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Safes, iron	Do.
Saffron	Free.
Sago	Do.
Sail cloth	Do.
Sailmakers' seaming and roping twine	Do.
Saltpeter	Do.
Sardines	Same as fish, potted and preserved.
Sauces	2*s.* per doz. reputed pints, and in the same proportion for larger or smaller sizes.
Sashes, plain	2*s.* the pair.
Sashes, glazed, with ornamental glass	4*s.* the pair.
School books, slates, and apparatus	Free.
Scrim cloth	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Sewing machines	Free.
Ship chandlery not otherwise described	Do.
Ships' blocks	Do.
Shoemakers' and saddlers' sewing-machine thread and silk twist	Do.
Shirts, white, regatta, crimean, navy serge, twilled, and fancy	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Shot	10*s.* the cwt.
Silks and all manufactures containing silk	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Silk for flour-dressing	Free.
Snuff	6*s.* the pound.
Soap, common	3*s.* the cwt.
Soap, scented and fancy	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Soap powder and washing powder	Do.
Soda ash and caustic soda	Free.

List of duties and exemptions under customs tariff acts, &c.—Continued.

Names of articles.	Rates of duty.
Soda crystals	1*s.* the cwt.
Soda-water machines	Free.
Solid wort	6*d.* the pound.
Spices—cassia, cinnamon, cloves, ginger, mace, nutmegs, mixed and ground spices	3*d.* the pound.
Spirits or strong waters, not being sweetened or mixed with any article, so that the degree of strength thereof cannot be ascertained by Sykes' hydrometer, for every gallon of the strength of proof by such hydrometer, and so in proportion for any greater or less strength than the strength of proof, and for any greater or less quantity than a gallon*	14*s.* the gallon.
Spirits or strong waters mixed with any ingredient, and although thereby coming under some other designation	Do.
Spirits, perfumed, and cologne water	£1 1*s.* the gallon.
Spirits, other, being sweetened or mixed, so that the degree of strength cannot be ascertained as aforesaid	14*s.* the gallon.
Spirits of tar	Free.
Starch	3*s.* the cwt.
Stationery and account books	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Steam-engines and parts of steam engines	Free.
Stearine	1*d.* the pound.
Steel	Free.
Sugar, treacle, and molasses	½*d.* the pound.
Sulphur	1*s.* the cwt.
Sulphate of soda	Free.
Swords	Do.
Sirups	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Tacks	Do.
Tapioca	Free.
Tarpaulins	Do.
Tartaric acid	1*d.* the pound.
Tea	4*d.* the pound.
Timber, sawn, rough	2*s.* the 100 feet superficial.
Timber, sawn, dressed	4*s.* the 100 feet superficial.
Timber, shingles, and laths	2*s.* the thousand.
Timber, palings	2*s.* the hundred.
Timber, posts	8*s.* the hundred.
Timber, rails	4*s.* the hundred.
Tin, in pig, bars, or sheets	Free.
Tinsmiths' fittings and trade furniture	Do.
Tinware	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Tobacco after being stamped or marked	3*s.* 6*d.* the pound.
Tobacco for sheepwash, subject to its being rendered unfit for human consumption, and to such regulations as the Commissioner of Customs shall from time to time prescribe in that behalf	3*d.* the pound.
Tools, artificers'	Free.
Toys and fancy goods	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Treacle and molasses, when mixed with boneblack in such proportions and under such regulations as the Commissioner of Customs may prescribe in that behalf	Free.
Trousers, moleskin and cord	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Trunks	Do.
Turnery	Do.
Turpentine	6*d.* the gallon.
Twine for fishing nets	Free.
Twine not otherwise enumerated	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Umbrellas and parasols	Do.
Varnish	6*d.* the gallon.
Vegetables, dried	Free.
Vegetables, preserved	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Vermicelli	Free.
Vinegar	6*d.* the gallon.
Water pipes not otherwise described, and all material which may be specially imported for the purpose of constructing waterworks	Free.
Weighing machines	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Whips and walking sticks	Do.
Whiting and chalk	1*s.* the cwt.
Wine other than sparkling and Australian, in wood or bottle, containing less than 40 per cent. of proof spirit, verified by Sykes' hydrometer, the gallon, or for 6 reputed quart bottles, or 12 reputed pint bottles	5*s.* the gallon.
Wine, sparkling	6*s.* the gallon.
Wine, Australian, containing not more than 35 per cent. of proof spirit, verified by Sykes' hydrometer, the gallon, or for 6 reputed quart bottles, or 12 reputed pint bottles	4*s.* the gallon.
Woodenware not otherwise enumerated	15 per cent. ad valorem.

* From the 1st March, 1881, each reputed four-gallon case of spirits shall be charged as containing four gallons, and each reputed two-gallon case as containing two gallons, when the said cases respectively do not contain more than the reputed quantity, and so on for each reputed gallon or part of a gallon.

List of duties and exemptions under customs tariff acts, &c.—Continued.

Names of articles.	Rates of duty.
Woolen manufactures not otherwise enumerated, and all articles made of wool mixed with any other materials	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Woolpacks	2*s.* 6*d.* the dozen.
Zinc, sheet, other than plain	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Zinc tiles, ridging, guttering, and piping	1*s.* the cwt.
Zinc manufactures not otherwise enumerated	15 per cent. ad valorem.
Zinc, plain sheet	Free.
And all other articles not otherwise described	Do.

WILLIAM SEED,
Secretary and Inspector of Customs.

CUSTOMS DEPARTMENT,
Wellington, New Zealand, November 5, 1880.

CONTINENT OF EUROPE.

TRADE OF ANTWERP WITH THE UNITED STATES.

REPORT BY CONSUL STEUART.

The close of the first quarter of this year finds the market very quiet, and in striking contrast with the condition of affairs at this time last year. Then everything was booming; excitement was intense in every branch of trade, and especially for such articles as wool, hides and skins, and iron the demand was such as to cause a great advance in prices and completely drain the market.

The amount of wool sent to America was unprecedentedly large and iron was sought for as eagerly as if it were gold, and as all buyers were anxious to reach the market in America as soon as possible, it was difficult for a while to find ships to carry all that was offering.

The reaction necessary upon such an unnatural excitement followed, and the market subsided into a very dull condition, from which it is now gradually recovering and at present there is a promise of activity with a regular healthy business. There are at present but few ships in port, owing to a long continued easterly wind that is very favorable for departures but prevents the arrival of sailing vessels. A great many vessels are expected, and with a change of wind we may look for some heavy cargoes of wheat from America and great activity upon the docks.

I have previously spoken of the difficulty in procuring reliable official statistics, as they are not prepared or made available until long after they are of any practical value; so, failing at the custom house, I am thrown back upon newspaper statements and such figures as I can get from private hands, which, if not perfectly correct, approximate sufficiently for the purpose of compiling such reports as I desire to make from time to time upon this important market.

Although the number of invoices legalized at this consulate was the same for the first quarters of 1880 and 1881, a comparison of the exports

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to the United States, as given in the following table, will show the falling off in the volume of trade:

Articles.	1880.	1881.	Increase.	Decrease.
Barrels	$193,513 68	$130,454 54		$63,059 14
Books	1,200 48	816 26		384 22
Chicory		5,194 10	$5,194 10	
Drugs	1,236 57	949 56		287 01
Furniture and objects of art	833 37	3,606 02	2,772 65	
Glass	10,502 11	5,390 71		5,111 40
Glycerine		5,651 72	5,651 72	
Hides and skins	312,081 96	121,217 45		190,864 51
Iron	107,373 77	154,325 28	46,951 51	
Meat, extract of		32,376 43	32,376 43	
Paintings	7,397 69	9,351 81	1,954 12	
Paper	5,874 27	4,550 05		1,324 22
Spiegeleisen	26,188 04	25,270 48		917 56
Steel	13,785 98	128,260 29	114,474 31	
Sugar		38,088 99	38,088 99	
Textile fabrics	15,696 81	17,978 94	2,282 13	
Willows	932 19	1,693 56	761 37	
Wool	723,141 33	1,843 43		721,297 90
Sundries	10,631 58	6,241 68		4,389 90
Total	1,430,389 83	693,261 30	250,507 33	987,635 86
Decrease for 1881				737,128 53

It will be noticed that the whole amount of exportation for the first quarter is less than the difference or decrease between this and the corresponding quarter last year. The greatest decrease appears in wool, the market for which has been perfectly quiet, and the shipment of 1,800 francs worth only shows that there has been no demand for the United States. The stock on hand is about 35,000 bales, and it is hoped that the approaching public sales to be held in the latter part of this month will put some life in the business.

Hides and skins also show a great falling off. In iron the effect shows itself later in the year, as it found shipment principally in the spring months; the heaviest shipments of iron and steel took place in the second quarter of 1880.

The following is a review of the market upon the importation of some articles in which the United States has an interest:

Coffee.—There is a gradual increase in the importation of Rio coffee from the United States, with a prospect of still further development. There were 3,478 sacks received from New York the past week, and for the first three months of this year the receipts have been 14,058 sacks against 7,612 sacks for the same time 1880. The market at present is very dull, and buyers not disposed to make any purchases.

Wheat.—The market is very firm, and American red wheat is quoted at 27 to 28 francs per 100 kilos. The receipts for the past week have been 129,893 hectoliters, of which 120,572 came from the United States. The total receipts for the quarter have been about 1,211,594 hectoliters, of which the United States furnished 50 per cent.

Corn.—The quantity received during the past week was 24,685 hectoliters from the United States and 4,491 from La Plata; the price is 16 to 16½ francs per 100 kilos. The demand is good and prices very firm.

Flour.—The importation of this article from the United States is increasing so rapidly as to make the millers apprehensive that their occupation will be taken away from them, and that American flour will almost entirely supersede the flour made here. There is good reason for their anxiety, for if proper care, judgment, and honesty is exercised

by the shippers from America, a good market can be had here for our flour. The receipts for the first three months of the year have been about 70,750 barrels; more than double the quantity imported during the same time the year before, and nearly every package from the United States.

Meat.—The prohibitory decree of France and the injurious reports from England affecting American pork took this market by surprise, and had the effect to lower the prices about 3 per cent., but as this action was attributed more to speculative purposes than to the dread of diseased meat the effect was only temporary, and in a few days the price recovered itself; but the market has remained since that time in a feverish, unsettled condition. Here we hear no dread of trichinæ, but we do hear complaints at times of meat arriving in bad condition, of inferior quality, insufficiently cured, and badly packed. As the meat is accompanied by an inspector's certificate, and as the purchaser has paid his money before he receives the goods and has no redress upon the seller in America, he has to make the best bargain he can with his bad luck, so he sells the meat at the best price he can get for it; generally it goes to the country districts, and is bought on account of its low price by persons ignorant of its bad condition; it naturally does not give satisfaction, and it goes to injure the reputation of all American meat and to destroy the confidence in American packers and inspectors.

The market at present is not very active as we are in the midst of the Lenten season, and prices for present delivery are lower than the present prices in America, but the stock being sold is meat that had been bought sometime since at lower prices and can now be realized on at a profit. For future delivery the market is pretty active, and prices may be quoted as follows:

Long middles for April, 100 francs; for May, 103 francs, and for June, 105 francs. For short middles, April, 105; May, 108; June, 110 francs; for both together, April, 102; May, 105; and June, 107 francs per 100 kilos. Extra long middles, owing to the reduction of the stock, have advanced about 4 francs during the week. Shoulders are not in demand and no transactions to report; price demanded is 68 to 69 francs. Hams smoked are in fair demand at firm prices; sales have been made from 145 to 160 francs, according to quality and weight, the latter price only for small, very choice hams. The receipts of all kinds for the week were 3,044 cases and 243 barrels from New York. The stock on hand of all kinds on the first of April was estimated at about 12,000 cases.

Petroleum.—This is the dull season for petroleum and there is but little doing in this article. Stock on hand was very small on the first of April, say about 47,965 barrels, and price ruling from 19 to 20 francs.

Spirits of turpentine.—The demand is confined principally to present consumption, and the price is weak at 20 florins per 50 kilos, as well for French as American. The stock is estimated at 500 barrels American and 200 French.

Rosin.—American rosin is in good demand at price 3⅛ florins per 50 kilos; some cargoes have been sold to arrive at 3 florins. The French rosin is very quiet and sales are only made for present consumption. The stock in the market is estimated at 5,000 barrels American and 1,000 French.

Lard.—The demand for the Wilcox brand is speculative and very active, and some large transactions have been made. Prices are very firm and advancing; we can quote present delivery 139½ francs, for May 138½,

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for June 137½ francs per 100 kilos, but the other brands are very quiet and only sold in small quantities for present consumption; the price demanded is 137 and 136½ francs. The receipts this week have been 334 tierces and 626 buckets from New York, and the stock of American lard on hand is estimated at 8,000 tierces.

Butter.—There have been several attempts recently to place American butter upon this market, but so far without success. A shipment of 19 or 20 barrels, received a short time since from New York, costing from 23 to 26 cents per pound, is sent back by the steamer this week as entirely unsaleable. I have sought personally from the importers the objections to or faults in the butter that prevent it from coming into use, for certainly there should be a good market for butter here where the native butter is scarce and inferior in quality. The objections are, partly, that the butter should be packed in firkins or tubs of not more than 40 to 50 pounds each, instead of in barrels of 100 pounds as at present. Also, that in every barrel is to be found many different flavors, showing that the butter has been collected from different localities and packed together without regard to quality or flavor. Again, it is too much salted to suit the Belgian taste. I am told that the best quality of the butter of which I speak above contained from 6 to 8 per cent. of salt, and the other qualities 10 to 15 per cent., and that it seemed to have been packed without proper care or judgment, and consequently no sale could be found for it.

I feel sure that if the above faults were corrected, and if pure butter of uniform quality and flavor was carefully packed in tins or tubs of the size demanded, there would be a large profitable sale for it here, for good butter is a great scarcity.

JOHN H. STEUART,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Antwerp, April 5, 1881.

THE EUCALYPTUS GLOBULUS.

REPORT BY CONSUL WILSON, OF BRUSSELS.

I have the honor to transmit herewith the description of a tree known in botany as the "Eucalyptus Globulus," indigenous to Australia, but now extensively cultivated throughout Southern France with most satisfactory results. I have translated the entire article descriptive of this tree as it was originally published in France, and has again recently appeared in an agricultural journal of this country, thinking that if but half the good qualities claimed for it be true it must be admirably adapted to the treeless regions of Southern Kansas, Texas, and, indeed, all our Southern territory. It is not improbable that the existence and qualities of this tree are already well known to our Department of Agriculture, but as I have no means of ascertaining this fact, and as the great question of planting our treeless prairies and renewing our fast disappearing forests is now claiming so much of the attention of the government, I have thought this article worthy of notice, and therefore submit the translated copy for your consideration. I may add that if no experiments with this tree have yet been made in the United States,

and it is thought worthy the trial, I can procure from the famous gardens of the horticulturist, and arborist, Van Houte, of Ghent, any quantity of the seed for distribution.

JNO. WILSON,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Brussels, April 16, 1881.

EUCALYPTUS GLOBULUS.

Nothing is more curious than this Australian tree, yesterday nearly unknown in France, and to-day on the point of producing a revolution in the sylviculture in the south and perhaps in certain industries also. It developes with a prodigious rapidity, its wood is very hard and resinous, and is neither affected by water nor attacked by insects.

The eucalyptus flourishes in the south of France, especially in the Maritime Alps, where, thanks to the efforts of Dr. Gimbert, its culture is constantly on the increase. At Carines its mean yearly growth is about four meters. Seedlings a year old, planted in the month of May in favorable ground, reach the height of 6 meters by the following December. Throughout all of Southern France, if planted in good ground, the eucalyptus in seven or eight years attains a height of from 20 to 25 meters. It is an elegantly proportioned evergreen, and sheds a very agreeable balsamic fragrance.

It is therefore of the highest importance to draw the attention of sylviculturists and economists to this remarkable tree, for the replantation of the forests in Southern France and Algeria. This is a source of wealth worthy of the most serious considerations.

The ordinary timber-trees in France are cut from the forest, on an average, every hundred years; the eucalyptus can be cut five times in that period, or once in every twenty years.

It will be seen by this that the value of timber forests would be quintupled by the culture of this tree.

It has been calculated that a cross-tie for railroads, which now costs 8 francs in France, would only cost from 1 to 2 francs if made of eucalytus wood.

An ordinary pine tree fit to furnish a telegraph post of 6.50 meters high requires a growth of thirty years, and costs 6.50 francs, whilst the eucalyptus will grow the same post in five years; and from this it may be seen what an economy must result from the growing of this tree for these purposes.

It is well known that, in consequence of the rapid extension of our naval constructions, we are obliged to import much timber from Russia, Sweden, Norway, and the United States. The culture of the eucalyptus would in time completely relieve us from having recourse to these foreign sources of naval timber. All the masts, hulls, and indeed the entire frame work of ships can be made from this tree. All the wooden vessels that now ply between Australia and England are chiefly made of it. The whaling vessels of Hobart Town are made of this wood, and throughout Australia it is extensively employed by carpenters, wagon-makers, wheelwrights, &c. A hectare of land, planted with the eucalyptus in lines 6 meters apart with 3 meters between the trees, will contain 500 trees. If they are well planted they will all have a diameter of 20 centimeters in three years, and a tree of this dimension is very useful to mechanics and wheelwrights, and can be sold for over 5 francs each. Thus the first cutting would produce 2,500 francs per hectare. At eight years, the trees of such a plantation would have acquired the dimensions suitable for railroad purposes, and each tree would be worth 20 francs. A hectare of this plantation would then be worth, according to Mr. Frothier, 6,200 francs.

Large plantations of this tree could be made rapidly to invade and cover swampy grounds, more or less previously drained, and so change its character as to entirely prevent the emanation therefrom of noxious miasms. Such plantations would prevent the direct action of the sun's rays upon the ground; would extract any excess of humidity from it, and would thus absorb all the elements of a parasitic and unhealthy vegetation. Thus, on a ground formerly uncultivated and pestilential, at the end of ten or twelve years from the planting a strong, generous, and health-giving forest might be produced.

Intermittent fevers do not exist where the eucalyptus grows, and travelers think that Australia owes much of the salubrity of her climate to the fact that so much of her territory is covered with this tree.

Mr. Gimbert strongly recommends the plantation of the eucalyptus in certain regions of Spain, the treeless plains around Rome, the vicinity of Poestum, the deltas of the Var, the coast of Corsica, &c., which are during the hot season humid, and hence the seat of intermittent fevers.

The eucalyptus contains an essence which is easily extracted and of which, Dr. Gimbert has shown the happy medical properties. This essence has, among others, the property of a febrifuge, anti-spasmodic, and anti-asthmatic. Mr. Gimbert, who, at Cannes, was the physician of Prosper Mirimée, tells us that the illustrious writer for three years used cigarettes of eucalyptus, and that they always calmed his asthmatic oppressions.

These facts speak for themselves, without it being necessary for us to add anything farther. The eucalyptus is a precious conquest, of which we must now try to profit.

PREPARATION AND PACKING OF DANISH BUTTER FOR EXPORT.

REPORT BY CONSUL RIDER, OF COPENHAGEN.

I have the honor to transmit herewith a report on the mode of preparing and packing butter for export trade in this country, and at the same time beg to state that there is no secret whatsoever (as many suppose) connected with the Danish butter-packing business. There is a correct way for doing almost everything, and generally the correct way is the easiest and simplest, as in this matter of preparing and packing butter.

RULES.

The dairy superintendent should rise in the morning at the same time as the dairy maids, so as to be sure that everything is commenced at the proper time. The superintendent must at each time of milking take care—

1st. That the dairy maids pay all possible regards to cleanliness by having clean hands.

2d. That the stalls are properly lighted, so that no dust is introduced with the milk.

3d. That the first twelve days after calving the milk is kept separate, likewise that the milk from the sick cows should never be mixed with that of the sound.

4th. That the milk should be moved from the stalls as soon as possible, or during the summer from the heat of the sun in the field, because a rapid cooling is of great importance, not only as regards the good quality of the butter, but also as to the quantity.

When the milk is removed and placed in iced water, it should be kept free from all shaking. The scumming must be made with the greatest care, as the quieter the milk is kept during scumming so much the more favorable will be the transition from cream to butter, and we can then be certain of having taken all thecream without any milk, a thing to be carefully avoided. The scumming should be made thus, so that four pounds of cream yield one pound of butter. Fresh air in the cellars, as also a careful cleanliness of the churning materials, is absolutely necessary. During the first two hours after the milk has been placed in the iced water, the windows should be opened, in order that the steaming from the milk does not create a bad atmosphere in the cellar. The buckets must be scrubbed carefully with a brush and after the scrubbing placed bottom side up so as to let the water run off. The dairy superintendent should never leave while the churning is going on, but keep a steady eye on the state of the temperature as well as on the quickness of the churning and duration thereof. The butter casks, which must be kept tight, should be filled with cold water, before being taken into use, for the space of twenty-four hours, and afterwards scrubbed with salt and water, which will remove all taste that the wood might otherwise give to the butter.

The milk has to lay over twelve hours for the setting of the cream. The morning's milk should then be scummed in the evening, and the cream therefrom be kept in ice-water, so as to be churned on the following morning, together with the twelve hours scumming of the evening's milk. During the cold season, when a warming of the cream is necessary, in order to obtain the required temperature at which the churning ought to commence, the same will take place by putting the tin pans with the cream, which must be previously weighed, in warm water (though not over 30 degrees), and the cream stirred about at the same time, with a careful noting of the thermometer;

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until the churning degree of temperature—about 10 (R.) degrees—is obtained; then the pans are taken out of the water, and the cream at once poured into the churn, which in the winter must have been previously rinsed with warm water, so that the cream shall not be cooled on being emptied into the churn. It is necessary that one should know exactly from how many pounds of fresh milk the cream has been produced, to be able to give the butter a suitable and uniform color. The liquid coloring must be added previous to the beginning of the churning, with one to two quints* to the cream from 400 pounds of milk which amounts to about 40 pounds (20 pots) of cream, according as the cows have been at grass or in the stalls, and the bottle containing the coloring should be roughly shaken, from bottom upwards, each time the coloring is taken from the bottle.

A favorable result equally with regard to the amount of butter produced as to its quality will always be dependent upon a proper temperature during churning, which can be given at 9 degrees at the commencement of the churning and with 12 degrees at the close, yet it must never be lower than that at which the butter balls can form themselves after twenty-five or at the most thirty minutes, when the churning staff revolves 150 times in a minute in a churn of 300 quarts, that is to say, a churn filled to the edge contains 300 quarts. The smaller the churn the greater the rapidity. The quantity of cream in the churn must never be less than four inches over the wing and lowest cross-bar, and never more than four inches under the wing and upper cross-bar. The churn wing must be an open frame without other cross-pieces than the upper and lower connecting pieces. Water must not, on any consideration, be allowed to come into contact with the butter, and the rinsing which may be necessary after the close of the churning should be made with scummed milk; a broom with stripped bark is best to be used for removing the butter balls from the churn and lid. As soon as the butter forms into balls about the size of a pin's head, or as soon as the buttermilk appears to be clear, the churning should be immediately stopped; it is of the greatest importance that the churning should be stopped at the proper time, because a too early ceasing will render impossible the separation of the buttermilk from the butter, which thus becomes thick and weak, just as an overchurning would make the butter greasy and difficult to be preserved. The small butter balls are to be taken up with a horse-hair cullender and placed in the trough, when the butter at once receives its first working; it is then divided into pieces of about a half pound, which receive six to eight pressures with crossed hands against the sides of the trough, in order that the buttermilk may be removed; it is now weighed and laid aside at one end of the trough in different layers, between each of which (three to four quints* to each pound of butter) salt has to be strewed. The butter has then to be divided crosswise in the layers in pieces of about two pounds, which receive about twelve pressures (six double pressures) at the bottom of the trough with crossed hands, in order that the salt may be well mixed with the butter; between each two pressures the butter should be rolled together so as to receive the next pressure from the opposite side.

Previous to the butter's last working, which should be done by machinery or on the working board, it must be allowed to lay for a time, whilst the salt is partly dissolved in the buttermilk within the butter, but how long a time must depend entirely upon the degree of warmth in the locality where the butter is kept. If the butter remains too long in a cold locality, it will be too stiff and hard, and when it goes through the working machine it is very difficult to be handled, because it crumbles and does not hold together, the consequence whereof is that it is overworked and becomes greasy and weak. There can arise occasions during winter where the butter may only lie over from 15 to 25 minutes between the salting and working on the machine; if proper attention is given to frequently feeling the butter, to ascertain if it has received a proper consistency in the working, we will always be enabled, in winter even, and in a perfectly cold locality, to procure pliant and tough butter. The same care must be devoted in regard to the butter's quick reception and first treatment after churning, as it is of the greatest importance in winter that the working first takes place previous to the butter having obtained the least stiffness; also, in an entirely cold locality the first working, as well as the salting, should be completed at the most in ten minutes.

In the summer season, when the butter after salting shall reach solidity, it must be laid in tin pans with loose wooden bottoms, and with pieces of wood between the butter and the pan's inner sides, so that it is not allowed to touch the tin pan, which is then laid in iced water, where it remains for about one hour until a due solidity is obtained. If the butter has received that due solidity, the buttermilk can always be removed by allowing the butter to go about ten times through the working machine in the usual manner. The laying down in the cask takes place directly from the trough when the butter is packed solid with the hand. The smoothing of the cask must at all times be performed by light pressure with a spoon, and never by rubbing the butter with the spoon, which makes it greasy. The butter is then sent from the

* A quint is 1.7636 oz. avoirdupois.

dairy to this city [Copenhagen], where it is kept under observation for about forty-eight hours, sampled, graded, and packed in tins for export all over the world; it is worked for the last time before it is packed and sealed, and the working is done by revolving machinery (American invention). The butter is not allowed to remain unpacked after it has been worked by machinery, and should be solidly packed and sealed at once. No secret whatsoever is connected with the packing. One of the main things to be observed throughout is cleanliness, good air, and sound judgment. No butter should be packed which is not sampled and graded "A number 1."

As I have had the honor to state in former reports that it is just as simple and easy to produce a good article of butter as an inferior one, and more so with us, since our material throughout is equally as good as the Danish, and in many instances much superior, I see no reason whatever why we should not at an early period control this particular branch of business in the world's markets. In order to be able to deliver a good article all the year round, and at the same time obtain a considerable quantity of butter from the milk, it is requisite to have a sufficiency of ice, and the use thereof should not alone be limited to the summer, but also be used in winter and at the other seasons of the year. The milk will, without fail, when the water is kept sufficiently cold, give all the cream in the course of twelve hours, but even should a small quantity of the cream be left in the milk, because the ice had not been used in sufficient quantity, it will nevertheless be made of good use in making cheese, and the milk should therefore never be allowed to lay over more than twelve to twenty-four hours, not alone on account of the butter (the after-scumming could be churned separately for householders), but also on account of the cheese, as it is impossible to obtain good cheese without good milk, that is to say, milk too old.

HENRY B. RYDER,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Copenhagen, February 18, 1881.

TOBACCO CULTURE IN THE DEPARTMENT OF THE GIRONDE.

REPORT BY CONSUL GERRISH, OF BORDEAUX.

The production of tobacco in this department is of considerable importance and has gradually increased during the last nine years. The following tabular statement will show the quantities produced and the amount paid therefor by the government to the cultivators. It may be well to state that the manufacture of tobacco for consumption is entirely monopolized by the government and very severely and strictly controlled.*

Crops of—	Quantities delivered by the cultivators.	Amount paid to cultivators.
	Kilos.	*Francs.*
1871	297, 127	242, 474
1872	335, 545	290, 531
1873	404, 550	355, 001
1874	486, 356	459, 989
1875	493, 359	432, 575
1876	521, 998	481, 041
1877	679, 824	616, 553
1878	769, 770	689, 816
1879	723, 387	671, 626

*See pages 80–93, No. 2, report of Consular Clerk Seidmore on the "History of the Tobacco Monopoly" in France.

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The crop of 1880, it is supposed, would have surpassed 1,000,000 kilos, but the hail storm of the 25th of August destroyed nearly one-third; the quantity delivered will be from 700,000 to 750,000 kilos.

B. GERRISH,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Bordeaux, March 23, 1881.

EMIGRATION OF PAUPERS AND CRIMINALS FROM WÜRTEMBERG TO THE UNITED STATES.

REPORT BY CONSUL CATLIN, OF STUTTGART.

In a recent special report to the Department on the subject of emigration from this kingdom to the United States, I expressed a belief that very few, if any, paupers or released convicts are to be found among those who are at present leaving Würtemberg in such unprecedented numbers, in search of new homes beyond the sea. I wish it could be added that such has always been the case. Unfortunately, however, the records of the past show that it has not. In a report made in 1868, I find the following:

> Township trustees contract with emigration agents to forward at the expense of the town, paupers, incorrigible idlers, prostitutes, vagabonds, and released convicts to America; and criminals in the State prisons at Stuttgart and Gotteszell, as well as in the county workhouses, are frequently pardoned on condition of emigrating, and with a view to ridding the township of the expense of their maintenance. Far from being done clandestinely, these proceedings are published to the world in the official State paper, and with an incredible *naiveté* are verified by the signature and seal of a county police judge or a director of the State penitentiaries.

This report then clearly asserts that at that time the practice of sending to our country the human refuse of this, undoubtedly prevailed. Here as elsewhere the stigma of conviction follows the released prisoner, shutting him out from good associations and honorable employment. Few fellow laborers are willing to work with or beside him. It is related of one Eisele, who had been an inmate of the State prison here at Stuttgart, and who was afterwards hanged at Parkersburgh, W. Va., for the murder of three persons, that, in his dying confession, he described the curse of his previous imprisonment as having haunted him, keeping him from finding honest labor, and driving him to further crimes in another hemisphere.

There has existed for many years in Würtemberg a charitable organization, known as the "Society for the Relief of Released Prisoners," with its headquarters in Stuttgart, and with branch committees in every one (but two or three) of the sixty odd counties of the kingdom. The biennial report of this society for 1862–'64 says:

> We have applied 320 florins ($134.40) in support of the emigration of released convicts. In most cases these persons had been sentenced to serve for many years in the penitentiary, but, in consideration of their good conduct, had been pardoned *on condition of emigrating.* We believe that we have furnished to one or the other of these persons, released from the penitentiary with better purposes of life, the possibility of an honest livelihood in a foreign country which they would have sought for in vain in their native land.

From the official records as published in the Staats Anzeiger of this city, it appears that from 1850 to 1865 about 7 per cent. of the regular emigration was composed of paupers and released prisoners, shipped at

the expense of the various townships, and of course through the medium of the regular emigration agencies. This evil might have gone on increasing to the present day when, with the present tide of emigration, it would have attained truly alarming proportions, had not a ministerial edict been suddenly launched against it. This edict, issued in June, 1875, was addressed to emigration agents and township authorities, and explicitly ordered that no persons who had been convicted of any one of a long category of crimes therein specified should be allowed to register as emigrants to the United States. With a view to determining what effect this edict had upon the operations of the society referred to, I have consulted its records from the year 1874 on, and find as follows:

Statement showing the amounts expended by the Würtemberg "Society for the Relief of Released Prisoners," in sending ex-convicts as emigrants to foreign lands.

Year ending—	Amount expended.	Year ending—	Amount expended.
	Marks.		*Marks.*
June 30, 1875	1,549.71	June 30, 1878	250.00
June 30, 1876	615.00	June 30, 1879	50.00
June 30, 1877	100.00	June 30, 1880	20.09

It will thus be observed that from the date of the promulgation of the ministerial edict (June 11, 1875), the outlays for shipping dangerous members of society to the United States have practically dwindled down to nothing.

Again, referring to the number of persons shipped we find as follows (the reports in this case being biennial):

Statement showing the number of released convicts emigrated from Würtemberg from July 1, 1874, to June 30, 1880.

How emigrated.	1874–'76.			1876–'78.			1878–'80.			Total.		
	Men.	Women.	Total.	Men.	Women.	Total.	Men.	Women.	Total.	Men.	Women.	Total.
With aid from the society	18	....	18	4	....	4	2	1	3	24	1	25
Without aid from the society	1	1	2	2	2	4	11	1	12	14	4	18
Totals	19	1	20	6	2	8	13	2	15	38	5	43

On the above showing there were 43 ex-convicts who emigrated from Würtemberg to all foreign lands during the six years ending June 30, 1880, 25 of them having been aided to do so by the society referred to, and the 18 others going unaided. During the same period the total emigration from the kingdom amounted to 18,522 persons, showing a ratio of only 2.3 released prisoners to every thousand emigrants, but even this comparatively small percentage will, I think, disappear under the influence of the stringent laws enacted on this subject by the royal authorities. The emigration law of the kingdom is very explicit. It says:

> No contracts for transportation shall be made with persons prohibited from emigrating by the laws of the place of destination. The same restriction holds good in the case of persons of whom the agent knows or must believe that they have no right to emigrate according to the laws of the country to which they belong.—(*Article IX, Law of April 27, 1879.*)

And again:

Particular attention is called to the fact that only such persons can receive transportation as may, under existing laws, be permitted to land in the countries to which they are bound.—(*Extract from instructions accompanying blank form of contract for transportation of emigrants.*)

In the biennial report of the "Würtemberg Society for the Relief of Released Prisoners" for the years 1878–'80, the subject of the contribution of funds toward the emigration of ex-convicts, and of the laws bearing thereupon is quite fully discussed in a special article, a translation of which follows herewith.

Discussion of the question of the contribution of means toward securing the emigration of ex-convicts to the United States of America and Canada.

In addition to our regular business, we have been engaged during the period embraced between July 1, 1878 and June 30, 1880, in considering the question of the emigration of released convicts, especially to the United States of America. In the invitations issued to the branch societies February 9, 1879, to participate in the general convention of March 12, 1879, we had already, owing to frequent questions on this subject, called the attention of members to the edict of the royal department of the interior, No. 3813, dated June 11, 1875, addressed to district governments and the royal county authorities on the subject of emigration to the United States of North America, and published in the official organ of the department for the year 1875, No. 14, page 169.

This edict begins as follows:

"In an act promulgated by the President of the United States of America, on the 3d of March, 1875, as supplementary to the existing emigration laws, are to be found (in section V) the following stipulations, also having reference to German emigrants." * * *

The edict continues in the third division, section V, as follows:

"Those foreigners who have been sentenced for a penal offense (political offenses excepted), and those whose punishment has been remitted on conditton of emigration, are strictly forbidden to emigrate to the United States." * * *

The edict says, in conclusion:

"Royal district governments and royal oberamts (counties) are hereby informed of the foregoing, and instructed not only themselves to observe these stipulations, but to see that the township authorities do not act contrary to them, especially in contributing funds for emigration purposes."

Subsequently, repeated applications having been made to this society to pay either wholly or in part the traveling expences of released convicts to North America, particularly in the cases of young persons whose terms of imprisonment were for short periods, we deemed it desirable to obtain from some competent authority exact information as to the scope and meaning of the prohibition, in order, on the one hand, not to exclude prisoners released from punishment from the hope of being enabled to commence a new life under changed surroundings, and by means of emigration, to provide for themselves an honest living; and, on the other hand, to protect released prisoners desiring to emigrate against the consequences which the aforementioned supplementary act attaches to an infraction of the prohibition named; also, at the same time to insure the society against the reproach of promoting an unlawful emigration. To this end we made application on the 19th of September, 1879, to the royal ministry of foreign affairs. The notification communicated to us through this channel on the 22d of November, 1879, from the imperial German consul-general at New York not sufficing to allay our doubts, we applied on the 23d of January, and again on the 21st of June, 1880, to the royal ministry of the interior.

Based upon communications consequently held between the royal ministry of the interior on one hand, and the royal ministry of justice and the royal Prussian Government on the other, an edict dated September 1–4, 1880, was transmitted us by the royal minister of the interior before the present report could be put in print. The essential features of this edict are embodied in the following, addressed by the royal ministry of the interior to the royal district governments, the royal direction of the city of Stuttgart, and the royal county authorities and magistrates, on the subject of emigration to the United States of North America, dated September 7, 1880, No. 6680 (official organ of the royal ministry of the interior—year 1880, No. 19, page 339).

The Royal Prussian Government, in reply to inquiries addressed to it, has communicated the following results of investigations made in regard to an interpretation of the supplementary act to the emigration laws of the United States of America, of March 3, 1875, contained in the ministerial edict of June 11, 1875.

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Decisions of American courts of justice, from which alone an authentic interpretation of the said act could be drawn, were not at that time (November, 1875) on record. American lawyers of repute have, however, expressed it as their undoubted opinion that the prohibition of March 3, 1875, contained in section 5, does not refer to all persons condemned on account of "felonious crimes other than political," but only to those who escape from punishment by emigrating, or to those released from punishment on condition of emigrating. The term "felonious crimes" includes all criminal acts punishable, under the common law or according to special legislation, with death or imprisonment in State prison. These criminal acts (treason excepted) are as follows: Murder, manslaughter, rape, mutilation, abduction, exposure of children, assault with a deadly weapon, administering poison, poisoning food or wells, assault with intent to commit a crime (as in the case of a burglary where an assault is made in such a way as to render manslaughter probable), arson of any kind, burglary, counterfeiting, forgery, robbery, embezzlement, theft of more than twenty-five dollars, perjury or subornation of perjury, bribery and corruption, jail breaking or being accessory thereto, resistance to public authority, dueling and challenging to mortal combat, bigamy, incest, failure to report a crime, and piracy.

If, until further notice, the foregoing interpretation of the said supplementary act of March 3, 1875, should be taken as a guide in any cases that may arise (see ministerial edict of August 10, 1880, relating to the transportation of emigrants at public expense, official organ, page 301) the above-mentioned governments are informed that such interpretation is accepted by the royal ministry of justice, but, of course, no responsibility can be assumed for the acknowledgment of this interpretation by the American authorities.

The royal city direction of Stuttgart and the royal counties of Heilbronn, Calw, and Aalen are requested to communicate the foregoing to emigration agents resident in their respective districts.

We would also mention that, in consequence of applications made to us for contributions toward the expense of emigrating to Canada, we made application, January 18, 1879, to Mr. Otto Hahn, attorney at law in Reutlingen, the author of "*Canada—My Journey on the Nipissing (Ontario) and the Swiss Colony—Reutlingen*, 1878," for special information with reference to the possibility or advisability of emigration to Canada; Mr. Hahn being, according to his book, intimately acquainted with the officers of the bureau of emigration at Quebec and Montreal. In his reply he has called our attention to the difficulties incident to the emigration of released criminals to Canada, and has given his views in general on the subject of emigration and the founding of German colonies.

I have given the foregoing extract in full from the report of the "Society for the Relief of Released Prisoners" in order to show that their efforts in the way of sending away the dangerous classes from their country to our own have been practically thwarted by the vigorous action of the Würtemberg authorities. I think it conclusively proves my original assertion that, so far as this kingdom is concerned, no pauper or criminal emigration to the United States worthy of notice is in progress at the present time.

GEORGE L. CATLIN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Stuttgart, March 31, 1881.

INSPECTION OF FACTORIES IN GERMANY.

REPORT BY CONSUL FOX, OF BRUNSWICK.

The various pamphlets and publications in relation to the subject of labor in Germany have recently received an important addition in the shape of the Reports of the Inspectors of Factories for the Empire for 1879, a volume of upwards of 700 pages of statistics and opinions, giving much interesting information in regard to this question.

The appointment of inspectors of factories is no new scheme. In 1853 the system was organized in the Rhine Provinces of Prussia. It was

not, however, until 1878 that this class of officials were known through out the whole of Germany. The power of the social democratic party, owing to the discontent of the working class, caused by reduction of wages, &c., has increased materially since the great business reaction of 1874. How to counteract this, how to relieve the workman, and to improve his condition, has been and is to-day an all-important theme of discussion in this empire. The appointment of experienced and qualified men, armed with authority under the law, who would act as intermediators between the workmen and the givers of work, was therefore decided upon.

In a previous communication to the Department (May 13, 1880) I had the honor to refer to a certain agitation among manufacturers, caused by a law introduced into the Bundesrath having for its object the protection of workmen in factories against injury and loss of life. The several reports of the Prussian inspectors of factories pointed to the necessity of such a law, and a draft of same was submitted. This, however, met with such a determined opposition from the German industrial world that the same was withdrawn to be subjected to revision by experts. On December 14, 1880, a commission of experts met, with Under Secretary of State Jacobi as chairman. The commission acknowledged the absolute necessity for the law, and used every endeavor to so frame it that it would be acceptable on all sides. It was decided that the same should be in the form of regulations to govern inspectors in the discharge of their duties; this found opposition among the manufacturers of South Germany. The only alternative was, therefore, to return to the original idea of a general law. Inclosed I beg to transmit a translation of the rules and regulations established by the commission above referred to.

OFFICIAL NOTICE OF ACCIDENTS.

The proposed law, requiring all accidents in industrial establishments to be immediately officially reported by the proprietors of such establishments, met also with opposition, and was withdrawn at the personal suggestion of Prince Bismarck.

The inspectors lay great stress upon the necessity of this law, and point to the fact that they are often forced to seek information in regard to accidents from hospitals, physicians, insurance companies, &c. In this connection I beg to refer to a draft of a law in relation to the insurance of employés in mines, factories, and other industrial establishments against accident and death, a translation of which is inclosed. I translate the same from a late issue of the Norddeutsche Allgemeine Zeitung. I have as yet seen no press comments upon it, though it may naturally be supposed to be a substitute for the intended law in regard to officially reporting accidents in industrial establishments. Manufacturers, being compelled by this law to insure their operatives, will be forced to make full reports of all accidents and deaths which occur. I anticipate that this proposition will also meet with considerable opposition.

The system of pensions has been reduced to a nicety in Germany. The military and other servants of the State of all grades are thoroughly provided for in cases of disability or old age; for the laborer, however, there is no provision, unless he makes some himself; it therefore seems plausible that economists and statesmen, having the welfare of the workmen in view, should adopt such a plan as this.

I have the honor to inclose, as an appendix to this communication, a synopsis of the report of the inspector of factories for this duchy.

WILLIAM C. FOX,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Brunswick, January 28, 1881.

Translation of the rules and regulations established by the commission appointed by the German Government to revise the law for the protection of workmen in factories against injury and loss of life. (*Paragraph* 120, *section* 3, *of the* "*Gewerbe-Ordnung.*")

1. The workshops, halls, corridors, and stairs must be sufficiently lighted, so far as is consistent with the character of the work.

2. The workshops must be large enough so that each workman shall have five cubic meters of air at least. Deviations from this rule are admissible with the consent of the inspector, provided a sufficient change of air can otherwise be obtained.

3. The workmen must, as far as the special construction and character of the work permits, be protected against the destructive influence of poisonous gases and dust.

4. In establisements where there is danger of fire, or where light, combustible material is worked, care must be taken to provide proper fire-escapes.

5. Rooms where explosive gases are used or generated must be lighted with safety lamps only.

6. The passages in the workshops must always be in good condition and so wide that the workmen can go to and fro without danger of being injured by coming in too close contact with moveable parts of machinery.

7. As far as practicable arrangements should be made to secure the workmen against injury on hatches, elevators, trucks, &c.

8. All trucks must be clearly and prominently labeled with their carrying capacity kilogram, also the number of persons capable of being transported therein. Pulleys, cranes, and similar subsidiary engines must also be likewise labeled.

9. All machinery and parts of machinery, driving belts, &c., by which the workman is endangered must in all cases, when not impracticable, be closed in by railing or guards especially.

a. Driving-wheels and belting which in consequence of their location make communication dangerous must be supplied with guards 1.5 meter from the floor.

b. Rope and chain transmissions should either be placed at a sufficient height above the floor, or be closed in.

c. Cog-wheels, fly-wheels, shafting, spits, and piston-rods of power engines must be thoroughly inclosed by guards.

d. All protuberate parts of machinery must be practically avoided or capsulated.

10. The setting in motion of the motor must be announced intelligibly in all the shops whither the motion is transferred.

11. In cases where several branches of manufacture are served by one motor, or where the machines are located in different stories or buildings, the transmission to the different localities should be independent of one another and of the motor, and, as far as the nature of the case permits, each machine should be independent from the other; where this is impracticable, such arrangements should be made by which the whole or any part of the work can be speedily stopped at a signal from any one of the shops. Deviation from this rule is admissible when in the opinion of the inspector it can be done without danger.

12. All contrivances for stopping engines, shafting, and machines, must be easily used, simple, and so constituted as to work with all possible speed.

13. Tools and machines with quick-running cutters (sawing, shaping, planing, rasping, carving machines, straw-cutters, shearing, and rag-cutting machines, &c.) must be furnished with brakes, and so constructed that the workmen may be protected against injury.

14. The cleansing, greasing, and repairing of machines while in motion, placing of ladders against moving cylinders, or readjusting belts on shafting can only be allowed when with ordinary caution no danger appears to exist, or by using appliances especially constructed for this work.

15. The term of five years is given to establishments already in existence to comply with the foregoing regulations. If the compliance with same requires considerable rebuilding and reconstruction, if not feasible, or very difficult, it is necessary to apply to the highest officiating board of inspectors and obtain a license.

The commission also passed the following resolution: "As it is impossible to give an unmistakable and clear interpretation of the above rules in all cases, the commis-

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sion is, therefore, of the opinion that it is recommendable that in order to abolish present existing severities and allay future differences and grievances, manufacturers and others interested shall have recourse to experts."

[Translation.]

Draft of a proposed law in relation to the Insurance of employés in mines, factories, and other Industries against acoident and death.

All employés in mines, salines, quarries, docks, buildings, and iron mills, whose yearly income from salary or wages does not exceed 2,000 marks shall in future become insured in an insurance bureau. Said bureau to be established, controlled, and managed by the imperial government in the interest of and on behalf of the insured. Said insurance to be against accident or death resulting from injury received in performance of work.

The above-mentioned industries shall be understood to embrace and include all industries in which boilers or elementary power (water, steam gas, hot air) is used, with the exception of navigation and railways; also such industries that employ momentarily power engines, not strictly belonging to them. In the sense of this law tantieme and fees shall be understood to be considered part and parcel of the salaty or wages. The yearly working income is calculated at 300 times the daily. The organization and management of the insurance bureau, so far as it does not clash with any special provisions of law, shall be regulated by the Emperor, who in connection with the Bundesrath shall make laws for the purpose. The tariff and insurance plans shall be determined upon by the Bundesrath. The tariff shall be revised every five years. The object of this insurance is to indemnify the workman in case of his becoming disabled and prevented from following his occupation for four weeks or more, or his family or heirs in case of death. In case of injury the indemnity to be paid as follows, viz: 1. The cost of cure after the commencement of the fifth week. 2. Apension to be paid after the commencement of the fifth week; *a*, in case of total disability 66⅔ per cent. of yearly income; *b*, in case of partial disability, a fraction of pension is to be paid—understood that this is to be not less than 25 per cent. and not more than 50 per cent. of the yearly income.

In case of death: 1, 10 per cent. of yearly income for funeral and kindred expenses; 2, in case death occurs four weeks after the accident or later, then the total cost of medical attendance and 66⅔ per cent. of earnings shall be paid. Finally, the heirs of the deceased shall receive a yearly pension from the date of death.

Each of the above and forementioned industries shall insure their employés collectively, for which a certain premium is to be paid, the amount of which is to be regulated quarterly and in accordance with the risk and amount of wages paid, as follows:

1. For those whose yearly earnings amount to 750 marks or less, two-thirds of the premium is to be paid by the employer, one-third by the poor association of the district in which the industry is located, provided that the local laws of the different "Bundes-Staaten" do not make other contrary provisions.

2. For those whose yearly earnings amount to more than 750 marks, half of the premium to be paid by the employer and half by the insured. The insurance is to be effected by the superintendent ("Vorstand") of the poor association of the district or by the "Bundes-Staat," who will also be required to pay a premium. It is, therefore, necessary that the obligee give proper notice and full exhibit to the competent imperial bureau in regard to his industry; the forwarding of such an exhibit effects the insurance. All complaints in regard to the amount of premium, &c., are to be settled by the said imperial bureau. Employers have the right to deduct from the wages of their employés the amount of premium paid on their account. The imperial insurance bureau has the full control of the employers in regard to the insurance, and can at all times make revisions, &c. Further, the employer is bound to report any and every accident which may occur to the police department of the district at the expiration of three days at the furthest. All accidents so reported shall be immediately investigated, and in case of death officially communicated to the competent agency of the imperial insurance bureau on the completion of the examination.

In case of injury the same is to be reported at the end of four weeks, at which time the result, whether total or partial disability, is to be established. For those receiving medical attention simply, the grade of the disability up to the time of thorough or partial cure is to be established.

All claims for indemnity, when not officially established, must be reported to the competent agency of the imperial insurance bureau within one year from date of accident. This can be accomplished by ordinary process of law. Three months after the establishment of a claim, unless claimed, the same will be outlawed. After the establishment of the grade and character of the injury, the insured will receive a proper certificate.

Under certain circumstances, in case of total disability, the indemnity can be capitulated; in such a case all further demands cannot obtain. Should the official head of a local poor association give notice to the imperial insurance bureau that an insured, entitled to pension, receives and does not apply same for the maintenance of those for whose welfare he is responsible, then can the imperial insurance bureau pay a portion of said pension into the treasury of the poor fund district to which said insured belongs, to be properly applied as aforesaid.

A certificate of indemnity is untransferable and unsalable. All documents and records pertaining to cases herein specified are to be gratis and tax free.

Where a total disability through injury or death occurs in the industrial establishment not insured in the imperial bureau, then the proprietor or proprietors of the said industry are responsible for all damages, unless it is proven that the proper notice was given; otherwise the responsibility shall fall upon the poor association of the district or the "Bundes-Staat" wherein the said industry is located.

In case the accident is the fault of the proprietor or his agent, said proprietor is responsible to the imperial insurance bureau, and the capital worth of the pension to be paid can be demanded.

In buildings in process of erection, the proprietor or proprietors shall be understood to be the person or persons who undertake such a work at their own cost. Transgressions against this law shall be punished by fine of not less than 50 and not more than 1,000 marks for each offense.

Section 2 of the law of June 7, 1871, in regard to the responsibility of railways and mines for damages in case of death or injury, shall not obtain in future in cases where by this law payment of damages is provided for; however, damage claims based on other lawful grounds can be enforced.

The workman is further allowed to effect special insurance with the imperial insurance bureau at his own cost. The amount of the insurance is to be determined upon by those effecting the same; though in no case shall it exceed, in case of total disability 600 marks, and in case of death 450 marks.

Further provisions for the payment of damages to such as are disabled through sickness or old age are reserved. The tariff, as well as special plans for insurance, shall be established by resolution of the "Bundesrath."

In conclusion, the employers as well as the authorities of the several districts shall act as intermediators between the imperial insurance bureau and the insured. The time at which the law shall be enforced shall be determined upon by imperial order conjointly with the "Bundesrath."

On December 15, 1880, Dr. Heym, of Leipsic, transmitted an opinion in regard to the foregoing bill; also the following table, showing the maximum amount of premium to be paid in order that the insured may receive 66⅔ per cent. of wages in case of total disability, and 50 per cent. of same in case of partial disability:

	At the age of—				
	20	30	40	50	60
	Pr. ct.	*Pr. ct.*	*Pr. ct.*	*Pr. ct.*	*Pr. ct.*
For pension for total invalids	0.58	5.58	0.57	0.52	0.43
For pension for partial invalids	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.02
For widows' pension	0.69	0.90	1.19	1.66	2.07
For orphans' pension	0.40	0.50	0.76	1.17	1.97
For funeral expenses	0.03	0.04	0.05	0.08	0.13
For sickness	0.12	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.14
Total percentage	1.85	2.23	2.74	3.60	4.76

As a basis for the above calculation, the callings connected with the most danger were assumed, viz, railways and mining.

The report of the inspector of factories for the district of Brunswick is confined to three topics, viz, employment of miners, employment of females, and the protection of the workmen in factories against injury and loss of life. The various industries in the duchy are classified as follows:

Mines, salines, blast furnaces	188
Quarries and clay banks	229
Metallic industry	37
Machine builders	77
Chemical industry	47
Heating, lights, &c	25

Textile industry	32
Paper and leather	51
Wood and wooden ware	196
Edibles, articles of nutriment	343
Wearing material	8
Polygraphy	28
Total	1,458

Of these 1,458 industries, 634 are situated in the city and immediate district of Brunswick. Two hundred and eighty-two inspections were made in 260 of these industries.

EMPLOYMENT OF MINORS.

The law in regard to the employment of minors was, on the whole, badly enforced. Many large factories were visited whose managers had not the slightest knowledge of the law and its requirements as to the legal working time for children and younger working people, and the illegality of employing such during the night time.

In many beet-sugar factories children between fourteen and sixteen years were found at work during night hours; on attention being called, ignorance of the law was universally pleaded, and it was considered a great hardship, as generally these children belonged to families who contracted to work during the campaign.

In the cigar factories children were found who worked longer than six hours daily, the proprietors excusing themselves that this only ocurred during the time of school vacation; "school vacation being intended for bodily recreation," is therefore no excuse for this offense. A further excuse that the children were not employed directly by the factories themselves, but by the "rollers," therefore relieving the proprietors of their responsibility, is not correct, as every employer is responsible for what occurs within his workshop.

In the textile industry, children may not be employed in the departments where the raw material is prepared; they are therefore employed to serve the spindles. This employment is such as not to demand overexertion; the spindles are in high, well-ventilated rooms, so that this work has no bad effect upon the health.

The employment of youth in cigar factories is not to be recommended. The work is done sitting, young and old together, and the conversation which takes place is not altogether proper for youthful ears; furthermore, the localities are generally poorly ventilated.

APPRENTICES.

There were found in the different industries about two hundred male apprentices. Many factories make a contract with their apprentices, in which their duties and obligations are fully cited, and either a bond is given or a certain percentage of the weekly wages is retained during the term of apprenticeship, at the end of which the total amount is repaid. This system is highly recommended, it giving the employer a guarantee against desertion and stimulates the apprentice.

EMPLOYMENT OF FEMALES.

In the industries inspected 2,498 females were found to be employés, as follows, viz:

Quarries, &c	42
Chemical industry	20
Textile industry	1,170
Paper and leather	53
Edibles, &c	1,128
Wearing apparel (cleansing, &c.)	3
Polygraphy	82

The largest number of females were employed in the textile industry and in the manufacture of edibles and articles of nutriment—2,298 in these branches against 200 in all others inspected. Examining each branch separately: quarries and earth clay, &c., 8 females were employed in quarries mainly as carriers of wood, water, &c., 7 in glass factories, packing, 2 in a cement factory, and 2 in a brick-kiln.

Chemical industry: 12 females in a powder mill, packing gunpowder, 4 in a quinine factory, 4 in a boneblack factory.

Textile industry: 893 females were employed in the manufacture of jute, 17 in cloth, 4 in woolen yarn. The above mentioned were employed in preparing the raw material, on spindles, &c. In all these cases order, industry, and attention to work is to be noted.*

*Further statistics in regard to the female employés in these branches are not given.

Paper and leather, &c.: 33 females were employed in different capacities in the manufacture of paper, 2 in straw goods, 3 in wooden ware, and 15 in wall paper.

Edibles, articles of nutriment: The females employed under this head may be classified as follows:

Raw beet-sugar	668
Sugar refineries	51
Chocolate manufactories	54
Chicory manufactories	39
Drying chicory roots during drying campaign	61
Maccaroni (nudeln)	23
Cigars and tobacco	225
Fruit and vegetable preserves (during winter)	7

In the spring and summer a large number of females are employed in the preserve factories. In the beet-sugar factories females are employed, in addition to those whose business is cleansing the different localities, at the same work as the men, such as preparing and cutting the beets, filling trucks, serving warming-pans, &c.

"If," says the inspector, "the various employments in this branch are not the most agreeable for women, it cannot be maintained that the same is unsuitable or that they are overworked."

Polygraphy: 82 females were employed. The work called for here is the most proper for working women. The rooms in which the work is performed are healthy, agreeable, and often elegant. The work requires but little bodily exertion.

This topic is concluded as follows:

"The foregoing statement shows that working women, as it is desirable that it should be, are for the most part employed in those branches which demand dexterity, cleanliness, and accuracy. In work requiring physical power and endurance, and exposure to wind and weather, women should not be employed.*

PROTECTION FOR LABORERS IN FACTORIES AGAINST INJURY AND LOSS OF LIFE.

Two hundred and eighty-one offenses against this law are reported, "though in most cases willingness to remedy the existing evils was shown." Enumerated, they are as follows:

In boiler-houses	4
In engine-rooms	22
In engines	84
In transmission of power	96
In machinery	57
Various, such as uncovered cisterns, bad stairs, improper position of doors, lack of balusters or stairs, &c., &c	14
Bad ventilation	4

No complaints were made in the several cases mentioned; warning, however, given that recurrences would be promptly reported according to law.

It is further recommended: "That more thought be exercised in the construction of machinery, with regard to furnishing the most possible security to the workmen. Engineers should not be too advanced in years, but middle-aged men, capable of acting with deliberation and judgment. In cases where the engine-room is located apart from the workshops they should be connected by bell signals."

WILLIAMS C. FOX,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Brunswick, January 28, 1881.

PROPOSED INCREASE OF DUTY ON FLOUR IN GERMANY.

REPORT BY CONSUL-GENERAL KREISMANN, OF BERLIN.

I have the honor to report that a bill has just been submitted to the Reichstag by the Imperial Government for so amending the present German tariff act, as to impose a duty of 15 marks ($3.57) per 100 kilos (220 pounds avoirdupois) on fresh grapes, and increase the duty on flour, &c., from 2 marks (47.6 cents) to 3 marks (71.4 cents) per 100 kilos from

* Refers most probably to women employed in manufacturing industries only. The sad lot of the average working woman in Germany is well known.

and after the 1st of July next. This latter provision, it is understood, is largely aimed, among other purposes, against the importation of wheat flour from the United States.

In support of the proposed measures the government submits the following considerations:

In No. 25, Q. 2, of the customs-tariff a duty of 2 marks (47.6 cents) is imposed on mill products of grain and pulse, and especially also on flour. This duty corresponds to the rate originally proposed by the allied governments in the bill of April 4, 1879. But inasmuch as the Reichstag raised the duty intended for rye from 0.50 marks (11.9 cents) (per 100 kilos (220 pounds avoirdupois) to 1.00 marks (23.8 cents), making it equal to the duty levied on wheat, complaints are now made by the parties engaged in the flour mill industry that the duty on flour is too low as compared with that of grain, and that no sufficient protection is afforded thereby to the German flour mill industry. To justify this complaint it is claimed that since those rates of duty have taken effect (January 1, 1880) the importation of rye flour from France and of wheat flour from the United States has been constantly increasing. And it is indeed a fact that in 1880 there has been a considerable importation, steadily increasing from quarter to quarter, of flour chiefly from Austria-Hungary, France, and Belgium, and also from the United States of America. The increased importations as regards the neighboring countries mentioned are all the more significant in view of the circumstance that a simultaneous decrease has ensued in the exporting capacity of the mills in the southern and western parts of Germany, the very regions having the closest connections with said countries. Under these circumstances the flour mill industry naturally had in a greater degree to rely on the home market for the sale of its products. That the foreign flour mill industry is able nevertheless to participate to a very large extent in the supply of the home market goes to establish the fact that the duty on flour in proportion to that on grain is insufficient for the interests of the home industry, a state of things the more strongly affording cause for apprehensions, as, according to consular reports received, an enormous production of flour is going on in the United States for the sale of which in the German market all means are to be resorted to.

No doubt can well be entertained, therefore, that an increase of the duty on flour is required. Fixing it at 3 marks (71.4 cents) per 100 kilos (220 pounds avoirdupois) the protection afforded to the flour mill industry under the tariffs in force from the year 1857 to the first of July, 1865, when all duties on flour and grain were repealed, will not be attained; but, in view of the high state of perfection the German flour mill industry has reached it is to be hoped that said rate of duty of 3 marks (71.4 cents) per 100 kilos (220 pounds avoirdupois) would suffice to secure for this industry the home market to the required extent.

In addition to flour, such other mill products of grain and pulse as crushed or shelled grain, peeled pearl barley, groats, &c., as well as ordinary bakers' wares, are subject also to the rate of duty fixed in No. 25, Q. 2, of the tariff; any increase of duty on flour, therefore, would extend in like measure to those articles also. No doubt seems to be entertained of the passage of the bill.

H. KREISMANN,
Consul-General.

CONSULATE GENERAL OF THE UNITED STATES,
Berlin, May 7, 1881.

NAVIGATION AND COMMERCE OF GIBRALTAR.

REPORT BY CONSUL SPRAGUE.

During the past quarter but little of any importance has transpired to call the attention of the Department upon anything connected with the navigation and commerce of the United States with this market.

While only six American sailing vessels have entered this port during that period (one bringing cargo from New York for this market, two "for orders" bound to Mediterranean ports, two windbound and one "under average," all bound to the United States), the number of steamers that have arrived at this port has been 1,212, showing an increase of 109 steamers on the previous quarter; of these 933 were under the British flag; 99 steamers called at this port bound to the United States for the purpose of replenishing their stock of fuel; 94 were British, 3 Italian, one German, and one Danish, representing together an aggregate tonnage of 107,043 tons.

A new feature has recently appeared in the carrying trade of American produce by British steamers, which I am inclined to believe will eventually most seriously affect American shipping interests. Within the past few days, no less than five British steamers have called into this port for their orders as to their final destination, they being loaded with full cargoes of refined petroleum, consisting together of 200,000 cases, from Philadelphia and New York. The average passage of these steamers was about eighteen days, and if I am rightly informed, the rate of freight on these cargoes being under what is generally paid for the same kind of cargo by sailing vessels, it seems reasonable to expect that the apprehensions contained in my dispatch No. 317, under date of the 3d January, 1879, may ultimately be realized.

I can announce no alteration or improvement in the general trade between this market and the United States. The tobacco trade still labors under the restrictions referred to in my former reports, and so long as the Madrid Government is in a position to hold a tight rein upon everything connected with the revenue regulations which guide the present policy for the prevention of the introduction of contraband into Spanish territory, there is little prospect of any marked revival in that important branch of trade.

The continuation of unusually stormy and rainy weather throughout Spain is causing some anxiety as to the growing crops of cereals in Andalusia and other parts of Spain, and may seriously affect the prospects of plentiful crops. It is as yet too early to form any definite opinion on the subject, still the indications are somewhat gloomy, which, if realized, may cause prices of grains to advance in the Levant market, which cannot fail to have a corresponding influence in favor of American breadstuffs.

The sensational report from the British acting consul in Philadelphia, purporting that an epidemic disease prevailed among the hogs in the United States, and which has been widely circulated in Europe, caused the local papers of this garrison to call the attention of the market committee to the subject of the introduction of American hams, bacon, &c., into this garrison, but so far, in the absence of even the slightest suspi-

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cion, they have seen no reason to take any steps in the matter so long as the home government abstains from interfering therein.

HORATIO SPRAGUE,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Gibraltar, April 2, 1881.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION IN ENGLAND.

REPORT OF CONSUL SHEPARD, OF BRADFORD.

Having commented somewhat severely upon the lack of enterprise in Bradford, and England generally, I wish to speak in a correspondingly admiring manner of one industry in which enterprise, liberality, and public spirit are most marked.

Perhaps England is ten or twenty years too late in the movement she is now so energetically pursuing, but however tardy, an example is given which the United States must follow, and that right quickly and generally, if she wishes to make her success in wool or other manufactures complete. So very important do I consider the matter that I propose to make it the burden of my report. I refer to technical education.

It is difficult, almost impossible, for a novice to deal with such subject as fully and practically as their importance demands. I confess myself such, and may therefore be excused if my remarks are less complete and intelligent than is perhaps desirable. I shall be entirely satisfied, however, if they serve to awaken interest in and further investigation into a question which I feel is of such vital importance to all the manufacturing industries of the United States.

For particulars of school organization, I beg to refer you to the numerous accompanying documents. I think it will be at once admitted that if a country desires to hold its own, or to take the lead in commerce or manufactures, it must make provision for the supply of sound instruction in those arts and sciences, the principles of which are applicable to the various employments of life. That the United States lacks in this direction is what I claim. Whether such instruction is to be given at the expense of the state or of the municipalities, or of both, as in most continental countries, or whether it is to be provided, as in Great Britain, by the public spirit and liberality of the people themselves, is an open question. My own opinion is, however, that no system of national education will be, or can be complete until technical instruction be included as one of its branches, and I am therefore strongly in favor of government grants as well as government supervision.

More than twenty years ago the Swiss Government established at Zurich a general scientific institution, where instruction was and is given in applied mechanics, physics, and art. The cost of maintenance is about $100,000 per year, which expense is cheerfully borne by a nation numbering scarcely more souls than reside within a radius of five miles from New York city hall. The benefits conferred upon Swiss industry by this establishment are beyond all question. In times like the present, when the discoveries of science are daily giving a fresh impetus to industry; when a thorough knowledge of art and an appreciation of the beautiful are becoming more and more necessary in the production of even the commonest objects that surround us in daily life; when the invention of every labor-saving appliance is welcomed by the workman as a blessing, and no longer cursed as an evil; when competition amongst the manufacturing nations of the world is gradually growing

keener; that government is most alive to its duties and responsibilities which recognizes the vital importance of placing within the reach of the humblest artisan the means of perfecting himself in the particular business or handicraft by which he has not only to earn a livelihood for himself, but to contribute to the aggregate well-being and prosperity of his country.

For many years past the necessity for technical education has been urged upon the attention of the British people, but while competitors in France, Germany, Belgium, and Switzerland have been establishing trade schools in every important center of industry, England has been strangely indifferent, and is only awaking now to a sense of the situation.

In 1877 the executive committee to the general committee of certain of the rich livery companies of the city of London appointed to consider and report as to the best means of improving the technical knowledge of those engaged in the manufactures of this country, whether employed as workmen, managers, or foremen, or as principals, requested the following gentlemen to give them advice upon the subject:

Armstrong, Sir W. G., C. B., F. R. S.
Bartley, G. T. C.
Donelly, Lieut. Col., R. E.
Gatton, Capt. Douglas, C. B., F. R. S.
Huxley, Professor T. H., F. R. S.
Ward, H. Trueman, M. A.

After considering the opinions expressed by these gentlemen, the executive committee issued a report, from which I extract the following:

It appears to your executive committee that, except in some very special instances, such as the introduction of a new industry or the revival of an old one, the companies should not endeavor to effect this improvement by teaching the workman to be more expert in his handicraft; as in their judgment this form of improvement is one which must be derived from greater assiduity in the workshop, and from longer practice therein; and they therefore are of opinion that except in special cases it would be unwise to establish any place for teaching the actual carrying out of the different trades—that is to say, a place in the nature of a model manufactory or workshop, or to provide instructors, for instance, in planing and sawing, and in clipping and filing—*but* they advise that the direction to be pursued in improving technical education should be one which will give to those employed in manufactures the knowledge of the scientific or artistic principles upon which the particular manufacture may depend.

As illustrative of these views, they go on to say:

While in the opinion of your executive committee it would be unwise to follow the plan which has been pursued in some places on the continent of endeavoring to give extra dexterity to the operative by establishing model manufactories or workshops, it would be most wise to give the chemical knowledge and the artistic instruction which would enable the worker to grapple with differences in the quality of water, differences in the quality of dyes and of the material to be dyed, and would likewise secure the designer from violations of the canons of good taste; and your executive committee are glad to say that in the foregoing views they are, without exception, fully supported by the reports of those who have kindly assisted them with their advice.

They further state:

In the judgment of your executive committee the desired ends can best be attained by means of a Central Institution and by means of Local Trade Schools. Your committee desire to recommend, as soon as funds sufficient for that purpose are available, the establishment in some convenient locality in London of a central institution for more advanced instruction, wherein no one should be received who did not show on examination that he had acquired in some of the existing science and art schools, or otherwise, a sufficient knowledge of science and art, so as to enable him to profit by the instruction to be given in this central institution in their application to manufactures. This instruction would supply competent teachers for the local trade schools, and year by year there would also go forth from it a supply of superior workmen, foremen, managers, and principals of manufactories. With regard to trade schools, it is believed it would be well to trust to residents in the localities where these schools are most needed to establish them, and your committee think that the object of the livery companies may be best attained by affording aid to such local effort.

Following upon the lines laid down in the foregoing statement of the executive committee, the livery companies are at present maturing a scheme for the establishment of a central institution; but it has been reserved hitherto for the Worshipful Company of Clothworkers to promote the establishment of local trade schools in the various centers of the textile industries, and by their munificent liberality and cordial cooperation not only to give an impetus to the cause of technical education in the clothmaking and other districts, but to direct the attention of the public generally to the value and importance of technical knowledge, as well as to the necessity of supplying the means of obtaining it.

The following list of grants made by the Clothworkers' Company is a sufficient proof of the deep interest taken by them in the work they have so patriotically undertaken to advance:

Textile Industries and Dyeing Department of the Yorkshire College, Leeds:		
Cost of site and building	£15,000	$75,000
Maintenance per annum	1,250	6,250
Technical Weaving School, Bradford:		
Grant in aid of building	3,000	15,000
Maintenance per annum	150	750
Technical School, Huddersfield:		
Grant in aid of building	2,000	10,000
Maintenance per annum	150	750
Technical School, Keighley:		
Grant in aid of building	1,000	5,000
Maintenance per annum	100	500
Technical School, Battery:		
Technical College, Glasgow	25	125
Grant per annum towards instructor	150	750
Briston University College, Lectures on Chemistry of Dyeing at Stroud, Trowbridge, &c.:		
Grant per annum	300	1,500
Grant in aid of building fund, laboratories, &c	1,000	5,000
Yorkshire Union of Mechanics' Institutes:		
Examinations in textile fabrics per annum	100	500
City and Guilds of London Institute:		
Building fund	10,000	50,000
Grant per annum	3,000	15,000
Total grants for buildings	32,025	160,105
Amount for maintenance	5,200	26,000

Through the courtesy of the Secretary of the Glasgow Technical College (inclosure No. 9) and the Keighley Mechanics' Institute (inclosure No. 10), I am able to furnish reports of what is being done in the schools in those two centers.

As regards Glasgow, it will be gathered from the accompanying report of Mr. W. Montgomerie Wilson (inclosure No. 8) that it was originally intended to establish in that city a college which should cost (including maintenance) the sum of £50,000 ($250,000), but the subscriptions not having reached more than £12,030 ($60,150), this idea was reluctantly abandoned. It was subsequently agreed, however, that one-third of the subscriptions should be called up in order to establish a weaving school, in the hope that, should this branch prove successful, the committee might be encouraged to take up others. The sum of £4,500 ($22,500) was raised, and in 1874 a site was secured on which the present building, consisting of a weaving shed, lecture-room, and offices, was erected. The school was opened on the 3d September, 1877.

In the first session 61 pupils were enrolled, and during the session of 1879–'80 the number on the books was 73, and the average attendance at all the classes 51. It is satisfactory, also, to learn that the balance-

sheet for 1879–'80 shows a surplus of £37 ($185) against a loss in 1877–'78 of £212 ($1,060), and in 1878–'79 of £42 7*s.* 2*d.* ($212).

The school is supported by subscriptions and by the fees of the students, and the results of the work done are considered eminently satisfactory. Stimulated by the success which has attended their efforts, the committee has acquired additional ground behind the school with a view of extending the weaving shed and accommodating a projected dyeing school, and it is hoped that arrangements will shortly be made for having the building completed and ready for early occupation.

As regards Keighley it may be stated that, thanks to the energy and enterprise of some of its leading men, it has long occupied a high educational position in the west riding of Yorkshire. It is largely employed in the manufacture of worsted yarns and of stuff goods, and is noted as the seat of the manufacture of spinning machinery. It will therefore be seen that it is one of those places in which it is very desirable that a thorough and extended system of technical education should exist. A weaving school has been established in connection with the Mechanics' Institute, in which at present the art of designing is being taught, while a course of lectures is being delivered by the head instructor of the Bradford Technical School. The present accommodation is, however, totally inadequate, and the council of the Mechanics' Institute have prepared plans for the erection of a new wing, in which they intend to include a laboratory and other rooms furnished with such appliances "as will materially assist both masters and workmen in their struggle against foreign competition, and place within the reach of the people of Keighley the advantages which are already possessed by the inhabitants of many continental towns."

In Huddersfield classes for instruction in weaving and designing have been successfully held, in connection with the Mechanics' Institute, for several years. A large sum has just been raised by public subscription, I believe about £15,000 ($75,000) or £16,000 ($80,000), and a school will no doubt be erected shortly which will be worthy of the public spirit and enterprise of the people of Huddersfield.

Within the last few weeks the question has been discussed in Halifax, and it is confidently expected by those who are interested in the spread of technical education that Halifax, though somewhat behind other towns in the west riding, will ere long have overtaken them.

I am not aware that much has been done as yet in the neighboring county of Lancashire, but a communication from the secretary of the Manchester Mechanics' Institute leads me to infer that the eyes of those engaged in the great cotton industry are beginning to be opened to the necessity of following the example of manufacturing towns in the woolen and worsted districts.

I am not in a position to supply any detailed information in regard to the textile department of the Yorkshire College at Leeds.

The buildings in which this branch of study is carried on have been erected by the "Worshipful Company of Clothworkers of the city of London," at a cost of £15,000 ($75,000), who also grant the handsome sum of £1,250 ($6,250) per annum towards maintenance.

The curriculum includes theoretical and practical instruction in the arts of weaving and designing; and a dyeing school, most admirably furnished and replete with every modern appliance, has just been opened under a very able professor.

It will be noted that in the list of grants of the Clothworkers' Company there appears one of £300 ($1,500) to Briston University College. I believe that this sum is chiefly spent in promoting lectures upon subjects of a technical nature. I give these rather tedious statistics and

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details for fear of omitting some little particular of value or interest. I now come to speak of the Bradford Technical School, and shall conclude with a brief summary of the objects to be secured by the establishment of such schools and the mode of securing them. These will be found laid down in the various printed reports which accompany this communication, but I summarize them for the greater convenience. Bradford is the acknowledged center of the worsted industry, and as such has to face the competition of the many continental towns which are engaged in the manufacture of textile fabrics suitable for ladies' wear.

The surrounding district is rich in minerals, and abounds in stone, coal, and iron, and its iron and engineering works are among the most important in the kingdom, notably the Low Moor and Bowling Iron Works, and others specially employed in making looms for home and foreign use. A large number of its manufacturers are makers of fancy textile fabrics, in which a thorough knowledge of design and harmony of color is essential, and it affords employment to thousands of dyers. It will therefore be seen that the trades carried on in Bradford include all those in which, according to Dr. Grothe, of Berlin, *vide* Mr. McLaren's lecture on Technical Schools and Workshops on the Continent, page 22 (inclosure No. 2), technical education can be given. This fact was recognized a good many years ago by a few far-sighted men, and a school of design was established which, after a struggling existence, ceased to exist.

Artistic and scientific instruction continued to be (and is still) given in the various public and private schools and institutions of the town, but until the beginning of 1877 no direct effort was made to establish a technical school, properly so called.

In April, 1877, the council of the Bradford Mechanics' Institute determined to establish such a school, and invited the co-operation and assistance of the council of the Chamber of Commerce, which was readily granted. A joint committee was formed, a guarantee fund of £2,000 ($10,000) was subscribed, and on the 6th of March, 1878, the school was opened by the president, Henry Mitchell, esq., J. P., president of the Bradford Chamber of Commerce, vice-president of the Mechanics' Institute, and British juror at the exhibition in Philadelphia and Paris, in the presence of a large gathering of the leading townsmen. The number of students who presented themselves (339) was largely in excess of the accommodation; the council were, therefore, very shortly compelled to consider the necessity of erecting a suitable building. Subscriptions amounting to between £16,000 ($80,000) and £17,000 ($85,000) having been promised, a site was purchased, plans selected, and a new school commenced which will, when built and furnished, cost at least £25,000 ($125,000). It is expected that the new building will be ready for occupation by the end of 1881.

It will be probably the largest and best school of the kind in the kingdom, as no effort has been spared by its promoters to make it thoroughly satisfactory in its arrangements. For full information as to the curriculum, I must refer to the accompanying prospectus issued on the occasion of the laying of the memorial stone (inclosure No. 13). For view and description of buildings, see engraving sent herewith (inclosure No. 16). The work at present carried on here has been attended with most satisfactory results, and it is confidently anticipated that as soon as the increased accommodation and appliances of the new school are available, the results will be even more satisfactory.

I have referred almost entirely in the foregoing remarks to technical education as applied to the manufacture of textile fabrics, and I have done so because it is in these industries hitherto that such education has

been given. It is not intended in Bradford or elsewhere to confine the instruction to one or more trades, but "to assist in the diffusion among artisans and others occupied in trades and manufactures of sound instruction in those kinds of theoretical and practical knowledge which bear upon the different branches of industry whether in manufactures or not."

In concluding these very imperfect observations, I desire to add a few remarks as to the objects of technical schools and the best means of securing them:

1. They are intended to supplement the education of the ordinary school with an education specially calculated to increase a man's knowledge of his trade or business, and to make him a more useful member of society and a larger contributor to the nation's wealth.

2. They should, in my opinion, form a part of the national system of education, and the scholars should largely consist of boys and girls drafted from our public elementary schools.

In the preceding paragraph I have included girls, because I believe that no system of technical education will be complete which does not make provision for the training of girls.

In all art schools girls take a very high place, and it is my humble opinion that greater facilities ought to be afforded them of earning a livelihood by the use of their artistic taste and acquirements in relation to all trades or manufactures in which a designer's skill is required. This will apply particularly to the manufacture of fancy stationery, pottery, and every variety of textile fabric, &c.

3. The course of instruction should include lectures by competent men upon the subjects of technical interest such as the daily discoveries of science afford.

4. Arrangements should be made in connection with every school for the granting of certificates or diplomas to deserving students, and every care should be taken in the election of the board of examiners and the choice of subjects and questions to make the examinations fairly severe, and such as to make the certificate or diploma of value to its possessor. Not the least important department of the Bradford School will be the industrial museum. The gentlemen who advise the executive committee of the livery companies, and to whose opinions I have already referred, unanimously state that "laboratories and a collection of technical works, apparatus, &c., are indispensable." No school in any important center of commerce would, in my opinion, be complete without such a museum.

5. Examination in technological subjects might be adopted by the educational department of any state in event of its undertaking to carry on the work of technical education, and would no doubt be found of great practical value. I am glad to know that a few technical schools have already been established in the United States, principally in the engineering and iron trades. I earnestly hope ere long to hear that a system of thorough technical education has been adopted for the whole country, as I do not know of any other means whereby the resources of the nation are more likely to be developed, or its manufactures improved, than by increasing the knowledge and perfecting the skill of its artisans.

English manufacturers acknowledge that their most successful rivals are in those countries or localities where technical education has been carried to the highest point.

Should the Department or the manufacturers of America at any time require any further information, I shall be glad to furnish it if in my power to do so.

I am greatly indebted to Mr. George Charles Sim, honorary secretary of the Bradford Technical School, for his assistance and co-operation in the presentation of this subject, and I desire to make to him most cordial acknowledgment.

C. O. SHEPARD,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Bradford, January 4.

CONDITION OF THE TRADE OF BRADFORD.

EXTRACT FROM THE ANNUAL REPORT OF CONSUL SHEPARD.

THE BRADFORD FOREIGN TRADE.

Excepting the first three months of the past year (1880), the course of Bradford trade, in piece goods, can be most perfectly described by the few words "from bad to worse."

In certain heavy woolen districts in this vicinity considerable activity undoubtedly prevails, but whether or not the improvement be permanent is decidedly an open question. The artificial demand from the United States during the last two months of 1879—a demand imaginary, not real—caused a buoyancy in the feelings and hopes of Bradford manufacturers, and for the time being gave a seemingly better tone to the market.

"The good times are here again," was a general expression. The spurt, which only lasted until April or May (1880), and which was based entirely upon hope, lured people on to additional expenditures and speculations, and left them in the end worse than before. Like a patient after a long illness, the trade had too little strength and vitality to resist a relapse, and extreme prostration was the result.

A sudden and false demand caused an overestimated vacuum, and, like air under similar circumstances, goods to many times the amount wanted rushed in to fill the comparatively small requirements of the market. A glut in American storehouses, and lack of demand in Bradford, were the consequences.

Neither here nor in the United States is there a real "market price," goods being worth just what one can get for them, irrespective of their cost. Bradford prosperity was too great in years past, and large establishments, both domestic and manufacturing, the expenses of which it is difficult to curtail, are the ruinous result.

I have before expressed the opinion that abnormal prosperity is as unfortunate as excessive misfortune, and partly because of the former, in times past, Bradford is now under the influence of the latter. The competition of the United States, France, Russia, and Saxony is constantly growing greater instead of less, and, to my mind, the prospects of what is known as "the Bradford trade" are most dismal. This state of things is no doubt partly owing to circumstances beyond local control, for fashion has been continually more and more against Bradford goods and in favor of lusterless goods made from colonial wool, but not a little is due, I believe, to prejudice, a lack of enterprise, and a failure to comprehend the logic of events.

To adapt himself to circumstances, to keep pace with the times, to make just the goods required, and to employ the newest and most improved methods and machinery are requirements which I fear the average Bradford manufacturer quite fails to meet.

A little of the irrepressible energy, which never gives up, the bound-

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less self-confidence, and the inexhaustible invention of the American character, the adaptability which will prompt the manufacture of ice-boxes if the market does not require furnaces, would be most invaluable to him. For years fortunes were made without effort, and their possessors came to think themselves shrewd and clever business men, while the fact was they could not avoid success, because Bradford had so rich a monopoly.

Now, when competition comes in they are paralyzed, partly, I fear, because of lack of astuteness to discover that old styles, old methods, and old machinery do not meet the requirements of the times. They are conservative and traditional to a degree, but I fear they will find, when too late, that tradition alone is not a very valuable commodity.

It is true that many manufacturers have been and are still "full of orders," but investigation shows them to be of the best class. *They* get the greatest number of and the best orders, just as people at the top of a hill get the greatest quantity and the best quality of gas—in fact have plenty when all is darkness beneath them. In my opinion nothing but a change of fashion (no sign of which I see) from lusterless to luster or "bright goods" can save the piece-goods trade of Bradford from ultimate ruin. A development of lusterless and all-wool manufactures would to my mind be the wisest possible step, as the fortunes of the town would then be less at the mercy of caprice and fashion.

The burden of England's commercial prayer is for free trade with the United States, but I am one of the number who are inclined to believe that even the abolition of the tariff in the United States would not result so favorably to English trade as English manufacturers seem to believe.

America *should* excel in manufactures for many reasons, not the least of which is that she is constantly receiving by immigration the best artisans from all quarters of the globe.

THE BRADFORD HOME TRADE.

Under this head I need only remark that never, within the recollection of living merchants, has there been such utter prostration. Undoubtedly the unsettled state of Ireland has a most damaging effect upon this branch of commerce, but beyond that exists the fact that the purchasing power of the English people is reduced to the minimum, and another good harvest must be realized before activity can be expected.

WOOL.

From January, 1880, to April, the demand for wool to export to the United States was great, and speculation in it greater, but although the prices are hardly back to September and October of 1879, still transactions have not been sufficiently remarkable to call for extended notice.

The export to the United States of looms and other manufacturing machinery has been greater the past year than ever before, and still continues, showing that the United States is determined to become more rather than less of a competitor. This export is not altogether, I apprehend, because of the superiority of English machinery over American, for the latter can be run, I believe, at double the speed of the former, but because it is wanted as a model upon which to improve, and because it can be bought (the second hand article) at nearly old iron prices.

C. O. SHEPARD, *Consul.*

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Bradford, England.

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IRELAND BEFORE THE COERCION ACT.

REPORT BY CONSUL BROOKS, OF CORK.

I have to report an appreciable, though undoubtedly temporary, falling off in the export business of this consulate during the first two months now closed of the first quarter of 1881.

The business of the consulate connected with shipping, however, has notably increased, owing to the severe storms and bad weather which have prevailed in the North Atlantic Ocean during the past two months.

The falling off in the exports can better be understood by the explanation that instead of shipments to the United States valued, in round numbers, at $85,000 during the same period in 1880, the shipments (regular) this year amounted to less than $12,000.

I have reason to believe that a similar falling off has been experienced at other consulates in Ireland, and it is also true that a visible depression exists in purely local commerce and trade generally. It is, of course, impossible to obtain exact figures to show the extent of this local depression, but I am informed that leading business men and tradesmen in different parts of the island estimate it at 50 per cent.

Although the winter now closing has been unusually severe, and, to a limited extent, local traffic and transportation have been interfered with or delayed by storms, it appears that the first cause of this abatement in business activity lies in the unfortunate political condition of the country; and it is to be feared that whatever the right or wrong of the case may be, the existence of the land league, with its ramified and all-pervading influence for good and evil, is the immediate occasion of this deplorable situation. This being admitted, it must not be forgotten that the real and original source of all this trouble lies with those who are responsible for the peculiar systems which made the land league either a possibility, a necessity, or whatever else it may be termed.

However, the fact remains that business affairs have been of late sadly interfered with, and the further fact is evident that Ireland to-day is controlled by a dual government, "*imperium in imperio*," the one located at Dublin Castle and vicariously representing the authority of Her Majesty's Government in London, while the other, and at present more powerful, derives its power and authority from the willing allegiance and sturdy devotion of the masses of the people—the masses I mean as distinguished from the land-owners, landlords, land agents, capitalists, and conservative middle men, against whose real and alleged oppressions the land league is now arrayed. For the express purpose of suppressing and abolishing this greater power than the government itself, Parliament has now passed a bill for the protection of life and property in Ireland, commonly known as the "coercion act," and not altogether dissimilar to the bill defeated in the American Congress in 1875–'76, commonly known as the "force bill." In short, the "coercion act" and the "force bill," in so far as they both contemplated the suspension of the writ of *habeas corpus* in disaffected country sides or districts, serve to show the similarity of English and American impulses in administrative affairs, although it must be admitted that the defeat of the one in America and the adoption of the other in Great Britain might be cited as proof that the American Congress is, perhaps, more truly conservative in dealing with the personal rights of its citizen constituents than

the British Parliament is in dealing with those of Her Majesty's Irish subjects.

Some reference to the conjoint causes leading to the evolution of the Land League and the consequent passage of the coercion act at the beginning of the operations of the latter may now be of interest.

These causes are to be found in an "irrepressible conflict," older by centuries than the one which waged in the United States twenty years ago; a conflict of races, an antagonism of uncongenial political relations, and a heritage of jealousy, hate, and real or imaginary oppression, all aggravated by the fact that England predominates over Ireland as the great capitalist, practically owning her soil, her manufactures, her transportation lines, and consuming her profits while governing her, as it is alleged, for the benefit of the few instead of the many. At the very outset of even the most casual consideration of this subject the average American mind becomes confused with the knowledge that radical and effective remedies for the amelioration of Irish distress can only be found in arbitrary disturbance of the rights of property, *i. e.*, by uprooting the title of acquired possessions and refusing to ownership the privilege of doing whatever it pleases with that which it owns. This is what the Land League really attempted to do and is still attempting. To say that there is any other excuse for such an attempt than one which would justify rebellion and dignify rebellion into revolution is sheer nonsense. Yet the land league leaders insist that their proceedings are all within the pale of law-abiding requirements, and are not intended either to be rebellious or revolutionary.

It is easy to see, however, that, despite their professions to the contrary, they have really inaugurated covert rebellion under the guise of radical reform and peaceable revolution.

This organization could not have been effected without provocation; nor could it have been effected except among a discontented and latently disloyal people. In fact, there is very little of the true spirit of patriotism and nationality, as viewed from the British standpoint, among the Irish masses. Their distinctive aspirations are all in the direction of race independence, and are based upon ill-defined hopes of one day imitating what they describe as that "other Ireland beyond the seas," forgetting in this description that there are more foreigners of other nationalities than Irish in the United States.

So ardent are these hopes that a vague inclination in favor of annexation to the United States is entertained throughout the length and breadth of the island, notwithstanding its evident geographical dependence upon England.

It is true this annexation project is only dreamed of, and is seldom talked of, except by way of instituting comparisons between what is and what might be. But it is, pointedly, an illustration of the discontent of those who remotely entertain and discuss it. And it is a dream out of which might come something tangible in the improbable event of international difficulties between England and America. For Ireland is the defective point in the armor of British nationality, the discontented and disturbed spot where sedition and treason are so ripe that any powerful enemy of England might easily open the way to overt rebellion. Not that any other nation than the United States could step in and foment successful strife on a basis of mutual admiration or friendship; but that any great power might make use of the inflammable material here to the serious annoyance of Great Britain.

Of the five millions of inhabitants on the island, where eight millions were numbered a generation ago, at least four millions are discontented;

and three millions have had all race pride and nationality smothered within them, or stamped out of their hearts by "continued oppression," as they term it. Being a different people from their English rulers, and incapable of assimilation with their fellow-subjects across the channel, they are apt to view every governmental measure of British origin as oppressive, whether it is really so or not, and the result is the same, for the unreasoning excitability of the average Irishman, when his imagination or prejudices are worked upon, provokes him to extremes. And the only actual relief he finds from this situation is in immigration, by fleeing from "hated British rule," and by assuming a new nationality.

Yet the truth is, as explained in a previous dispatch relating to this subject, the Irish tenant (the tenant class furnish the overwhelming number of immigrants), enjoys a few privileges in Ireland not accorded to him elsewhere. Among those privileges are the right to recover from the owner of the soil the value of all improvements made thereon during the tenure of his lease and compensation for unexhausted manure. Thus it happens that when a landlord dispossesses a tenant for non-payment of rent the latter presents an offset against the rental account in the form of claims for improvements and fertilizers.

The difference between the two is carefully adjudicated by the land courts, and latterly, since the organization of the land league, the landlord has indeed been fortunate if the eviction replaced him in the possession of his property without further cost or without bloodshed, for in nine cases out of ten the evicted tenant has been returned to his holdings either as a care-taker, by the cautious permission of the landowner, or, by force of arms, reinstated by the neighbors under admonitions to all concerned that if he should again be disturbed it would be at the risk of some one's peace and happiness. If by any chance a delinquent tenant was actually driven away from the farm and countryside, the landlord found himself confronted with a threat from the same effective agency that any new tenant who dared to attempt to take possession of the vacated realty would suffer serious consequences.

A favorite method of executing this threat has been by conspiracy to prevent any one from buying from or trafficking with the new tenant, or, more cruel and not unfrequent, by waylaying him and beating him at night, and sometimes cutting his ears off. Again, the resident landlords or the agents or the agents of absent landowners have often suffered from a similar conspiracy in being refused the right or privilege of purchasing from any source even the necessaries of life for themselves and their families, and many of them have been compelled by this means to leave the country.

And yet, again, the crops of evicted tenants have in numbers of cases been harvested by their sympathizing neighbors and carried away, in full view of the police, to be appropriated for the benefit of the distressed or destrained party.

Strange as it may appear to law-abiding people in other parts of the world, these occurrences have been the prevalent things in some portions of Ireland, and the Irish newspapers are filled daily with accounts of the inability of the courts and the officers of the law to protect the rights of property and person or enforce the edicts of so-called legal justice. It is not an exaggeration that in the western and middle portions of Ireland the defendants in eviction cases who thus stand in comtempt of and defiance to the courts number hundreds and thousands.

The figures show that of the 33,000 square miles in Ireland, nearly 16,000,000 acres are arable; about 4,500,000 acres are uncultivated, 320,000 acres are covered with wood, and 50,000 acres are occupied by towns and

cities of 2,000 inhabitants and upwards. It requires no very close calculation to prove that even if there were no manufactures at all, it would be possible to maintain 5,000,000 of people on this broad expanse of fertile soil by agriculture alone, especially in view of the fact that England furnishes a convenient market for much more than the surplus products of the island.

But the figures also show that the exports of linen, leather, hides, woolen, worsted, whisky, aerated waters, down-goods, and other manufactured products amount in round numbers to nearly $100,000,000 a year, and that a million and a half of people, if not more, are constantly employed in the mechanical preparation of these articles for market. There is, consequently, no reason why the population should be not only self-sustaining but forehanded, unless there is a great leakage in the financial management of affairs.

This leakage, the average Irishman will tell you, exists in the "crimes" of landlordism and absenteeism. He will then go on to explain that nine-tenths of the landlords and capitalists who own the soil and factories live abroad and spend the profits of their Irish investments elsewhere than in Ireland; and he will add that the rent they demand or claim and receive for their land is more than exorbitant; that the land is covered with mortgages, entails, and annuities, and is often leased and sub-leased and subjected to other costs and expenses, all of which the actual tiller of the soil pays by the sweat of his brow and under the threatened scourge of eviction and consequent starvation. It is useless to reply that property is property, and that the owner of a piece of land has the same right to do as he pleases with it that the owner of a horse has to use that animal as his convenience or necessities may dictate, for the rejoinder is ready that such may be the case in America where land is so plenty, but it is not the case in Ireland where land is scarce and where it is a very rare thing that any man can become his own landlord or own the soil in fee simple. Declare then, if you please, that there is enough and more than enough land for all practicable purposes in Ireland, and the answer, apt and conclusive, is an admission of the truth of that declaration, if the landlords would rent it at reasonable rates.

These unreasonable rates, it should be understood, are based upon caprice or the necessities or the greed of the lords of the soil.

It would appear that no tenant is compelled to accede to them or to take a farm under them; but the question is, what will he do for the support of himself and family and a roof over their heads if he does not submit to them?

The result is, whether the land is leased upon the poor law assessment plan or upon Griffith's valuation, both of which are comparatively fair, or upon rates obtained by competition between would-be tenants, or yet, upon the arbitrary terms of the owner, it is taken, and the unfortunate tenant struggles from hand to mouth, year in and year out, seldom, if ever, getting ahead of his current expenses, almost always on the verge of starvation, until the crops fail, the potatoes are blighted, or some other disaster occurs, and reduces him to the condition of forced mendicity.

Of the prosperous classes in Ireland, those who have accumulated or inherited wealth, the trades people and others who enjoy immunity from the troubles with which their laboring and agricultural fellow-subjects are afflicted, very little need be said. They are not, of course, as progressive and as independent as they would be if their surroundings were free from the depressing influences of poverty, misery, and consequent crime, which is so nearly akin to agrarianism that it can hardly be

described by any other name; but they constitute a greater portion of the conservative element of the community, and are law-abiding, intelligent, and contented.

They serve, however, to point the contrast between the actual situation and the possibilities thereof. Whether they are styled as "gentry," as middlemen, or as tradespeople, the fact that they live habitually as people of the same class do in other countries stands out as proof that something is wrong as regards the manner of life among the lower classes, for the distinction between the two is very great.

For example, the average laborer in Ireland is paid forty-eight cents—two shillings—a day for his work, while the business man and his clerks, the professional man and his assistants, are paid nearly as much, and in many instances quite as much, the cost of living considered, as they would be for the same services in the United States. And the laborer often goes from one month's end to the other without tasting a mouthful of fresh meat, his accustomed diet being fish, milk, meal, and potatoes.

The form of government by which Ireland is ruled is an anomaly. Local and municipal rights are yielded and respected to some extent, but any change or reformation in them requires the sanction sometimes of Parliament, and at all times of the Viceroy, the Lord Lieutenant, or of the English cabinet.

There are boards and commissions, and there are commissions and boards for every conceivable governmental purpose; but all of them are more or less amenable to the supervision of the Queen's representative, who may for the time being occupy the vice-regal castle at Dublin. The general belief in America that Ireland is governed by the same laws as England and Scotland is a sad mistake. Notably, the system under which police authority is exercised is different from that employed in those sister dependencies, for the police or constabulary of Ireland, instead of being truly local, is to all intents and purposes, outside of the city of Dublin, a standing army of well disciplined and well drilled riflemen, dressed or uniformed, and officered very much like the regular rifle corps in the British army. The men of the rank and file are carefully selected, and after due instruction as carefully sent to some part of the island wherein they find themselves to be strangers, and consequently have no personal kindred or local and homebred sympathies with the people. They are so numerous, about 13,000 in all, that the traveler sees them at nearly every cross-roads, and enough of them are always within calling distance near the small villages and towns to prevent any serious uprising.

Strong in numbers as they are, however, they have latterly been incapable of repressing land outrages, such as the above described, and it is not improbable that if they were not constantly backed up by the presence of regular military, scattered in posts and barracks from one end of the island to the other, they would be further defied and their authority utterly set aside. As it is, they serve on occasion as census-takers or enumerators, and for other similar public purposes; but at all times as political and private agents of the British Government. They are, in short, the direct servants for good or evil of the occupant of the castle at Dublin, whose power over them is arbitrary in the extreme.

If there ever was centralization of authority in modern government, one-man power, it is to be found in the Lord Lieutenant, or in the privileges vested in him to interfere with local affairs by means of this pliant and mobilized armed constabulary. No occurrence is too important, or, for that matter, too insignificant for his attention and decision, and everything that takes place of a political or public character, as

well as some things, it is charged, of a private nature, is reported to him or his subordinates by this extraordinary combination of official espionage and judicial vigilance. Besides this, all plans requiring governmental aid for public improvements, for the development of new resources, or the enlargement and encouragement of familiar industries, pass through his hands to be recommended or condemned by him. And it often happens that his recommendations, when honestly advantageous to Ireland, are overlooked, delayed by pigeon-holing, or effectually squelched by the lords of the treasury in London.

Again, the board of trade or customs service in Ireland is, to a large extent, officered by Englishmen, who are naturally in the majority in the civil service of the "United" Kingdom; and experience teaches those who have had reason to search the official records kept by these much talked of and much vaunted civil service officials of Great Britain that their efficiency is, as a general thing, a myth; that they are not prompt as regards statistical matters, and are sometimes a year or so behind in their balances. That is to say, statistical information that could be instantly procured at either of the Bureaux of Statistics in Washington, or at the New York custom-house, regarding current affairs, free of cost to the public, cannot be obtained in Ireland except by the payment of certain fees to a civil-service officials' fund, and then only after it is many months old. But this civil service is controlled in London, and, good or bad, so long as it is controlled there, the people here will be dissatisfied with it.

The courts, too, are are not amenable to the people or subject to any influence save that exerted by the appointing power.

"Resident" magistrates may be shifted about and detailed for duty at one place or another like so many army officers. Like the police or constabulary, they are thus oftentimes sent into strange localities for the sole purpose of infusing into the local administration of justice a new element, or for the reason that they may have become too sympathetic with old and familiar surroundings. It can be truthfully said to their credit, however, that the judicial servants of Ireland, high and low, are rarely guilty of too much leniency in matters that affect the stability and good order of society.

Some of them are known, it is true, as the lately murdered Lord Mount Morris was, as the "people's magistrates," because of their habitually conservative course in cases arising out of fisticuffs and neighborhood rows; but in dealing with land cases and outrages upon property they are consistently loyal and just, administering and executing the laws as they are, without regard to local prejudices as to what they ought to be.

Of course the remedies for all these evils as suggested, including peasant proprietorship, are innumerable. But if a man cannot pay rent how can he pay purchase money?

This question involuntarily suggests itself to the American mind, and would seem as a sufficient answer to the suggestions referred to if they were made in the United States. However this may be, it is a question which has no weight in Ireland among the reformers or Land Leaguers.

Long ago, when the British Government, so proud of the inviolability of its national prestige elsewhere, forgot, or purposely neglected to protect the personal and property rights of its subjects in Ireland, these reformers were encouraged by compromise laws, "stay laws," and tenants' rights acts to ignore the rights of ownership and to assert the fallacies of agrestic usurpation for their own benefit. Despite their protests that they are not communists and they are not engaged in agrarianism, the truth stands boldly out that they demand the surrender of the title to

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the soil from its present owners into the hands of the people at large, and when you talk about the price to be paid for that surrender they begin to speculate about life-long and irrevocable leases, about twenty yearly installments, and finally they declare that a man being unable to rent or buy is entitled to his living, and no other man has the right to disturb him in his efforts to secure it. In short, the land league has no basis at all if it is not grounded upon the assumption that a man who is starving is entitled to subsistence at the expense of those who are not. Not only this, but the land league is a grand and widespread, as well as powerful, combination of earnest and defiant conspirators, whose only aim is to protect its more unfortunate members in their efforts to obtain that subsistence.

A single instance, and a very mild one, will sufficiently illustrate its methods.

The local papers in Cork, which, though a discontented Fenian center, is not given to extreme agitation on the land question, incidentally record without comment, as if it was, and as it really was, a very common occurrence, the fact that one Richard Cox, who, with his family of thirteen children, had been evicted from a certain farm at Ballybuttler, had called upon the league for assistance. The league met, and a man named Maye, who had succeeded Cox as lessee of the farm, was peremptorily cited to appear before it. Imagine this! an unauthorized band of conspirators issued its mandate and it is obeyed with more promptness than the writ of a court would be, for Maye appeared at the meeting as he had been ordered to. It was then proven that Cox had paid his rent properly, that Maye had offered a hundred dollars a year more for the farm than Cox had been paying, and that the landlord thereupon ousted the latter and placed Maye in possession.

There was no violation of the terms of the lease, nor had Cox any complaint to make save that he had been evicted in a "capricious" manner. Maye did complain, however, that he had been shot at through the window of his house, narrowly escaping injury, and that Cox, whom every one believes to have been guilty of the shooting, had been acquitted of the crime at the following assizes. The league finally ordered Maye to give up the farm, the object being either to reinstate Cox or to prevent the owner from having any tenant at all; either that Cox should till the land or that it should lie idle. Maye refused to obey the order and returned to his home under police escort, which subsequently remained with him to protect him and his house from outrage. The league then proceeded to hold another meeting on the very land and farm in question, at which Mr. Dillon, M. P., and other distinguished speakers and leaders were invited to be present, and at which it was agreed or resolved to ostracise Maye, even to the extent of refusing to buy or sell with him. But the truth is, probably, that Maye himself is rack rented, *i. e.*, that he pays more than the land is worth.

The failure of the crops, especially potatoes, in '77, '78, and '79, brought many of these people to starvation's door in the winter of '79–'80 and the spring of the latter year; thousands upon thousands of charitable dollars flowed in to rescue them from the horrors of famine. And there was a famine, or a near approach to it, however much it may have been doubted or disputed. That is to say, the poorer cottiers of the bog regions and the half-farmers and half-fishermen on the western coast were reduced to the extremity of wistful looks and hungry glances at that family mainstay, the pig, if they had one to look or glance at, and to serious contemplation of a necessity to kill the last fowl for food. But it is not recorded that pig or fowl was ever killed under these cir-

cumstances, for the reason, evidently, that relief came from abroad in time to save them. Meanwhile, the deposits in the Postal Savings Bank increased, and the contributions to "Peter's Pence" and other religious funds did not fall off materially.

This paradox in social or political economy was supplemented by the curious fact that the subscriptions to the Irish relief funds were mainly from sources outside of England. But the famine, such as it was, was made the most of by the opponents of British rule and by all kinds of discontents, who found in it boundless resources of argument in favor of a change in affairs. It was on this basis that the home rulers, as the Irish parliamentary party styled themselves on occasion, made their campaign and succeeded; a farcical campaign, in one aspect, because many of the home (?) rulers, elected at the dictation of Mr. Parnell, were arrant carpet-baggers, and did not live among their constituencies; but serious in another view of the case, for the Land League conspiracy—the plot to rescue the people from the toils of overshadowing poverty and make men of serfs, even at the expense of some of the external equities—was evolved out of that campaign.

It is possible that this famine-bred political movement has gone further than its originators intended, and that feeding upon the excitement of circumstances the leaders themselves have been carried away by the national evolution which now amounts to a revolution. At any rate, the close of the year 1880 in Ireland was characterized by constantly recurring announcements that this and that nobleman or landowner had received threatening letters, and that two-thirds of the resident landlords in the more disaffected districts had been compelled to seek, either directly or indirectly, the protection of the immediate presence of the constabulary about their persons. And it is a noteworthy fact that while Mr. Redpath, an Anglo-American agitator in Ireland and a radical of no small renown in the United States, invariably counseled against bloodshed in his speeches and letters, as Mr. Parnell did also, none of these leaders took the trouble to pointedly rebuke interruptions of their numerous public speeches made by violent or exasperated men who always advocate the shedding of blood as the only panacea for their troubles. In other words, the land league leaders deprecated bloody violence in a general way, but did not personally condemn their coadjutors who advocated it. Perhaps the tide of land league inclination in favor of peaceable methods was strong enough, in their opinion, to overawe such advocates, and perhaps they themselves were overawed. However this may be, it is certain that the revolution against landlordism proceeded to such extreme lengths that the land league became, as before stated, a vast conspiracy against vested rights, incident to which were these defiant and illegal acts perpetrated by men who sympathized with the league, even if the league did not sympathize with them.

In the end the populace became so thoroughly imbued with the Land League spirit of opposition to the administration or execution of "hated British laws" that no jury could be found in Ireland to convict a man charged with violating them. In short, and as before remarked, an effectual rebellion against and overthrow of accustomed governmental methods was accomplished—a rebellion justified in the hearts of the people, encouraged to a great extent by some of their religious instructors, and in effect reviving hopes and ambitions of national integrality which are certainly doomed to disappointments.

Concurrent with this situation is the lamentable fact that numbers of day laborers in different parts of the island have been deprived of em-

ployment as a consequence of the business depression alluded to. This fact is repeatedly illustrated by the increase of applicants for relief at the hands of public and private almoners.

Meanwhile I have to report that quite a number of real as well as putative American citizens in this consular district have already, fearing arrest under the retroactive provisions of the "Coercion Act," applied to me for advice and protection.

E. P. BROOKS,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Cork, Ireland, March 3, 1881.

AMSTERDAM: TRADE IN AMERICAN STAPLES DURING THE YEAR 1880.

REPORT BY CONSUL ECKSTEIN.

GRAIN.

The imports of and trade in breadstuffs at Amsterdam and in Holland generally during the year may be said to have been governed as to extent of transactions, fluctuation of prices, &c., by about the same influences as the markets of other European countries which depend, more or less, for their supplies upon parts of the world beyond their limits.

The only especially noteworthy and somewhat striking feature in the past year's grain trade has been in this, that in the course of it large quantities of Indian corn or maize have been imported from the United States and found a ready market here. I speak of what is known in the trade here as "mixed maize." It is said to be advantageously substituted for rye or mixed therewith, and when ground into flour is used in making bread and for other purposes serving as human food. To a certain extent it is also being used in distilleries.

Present appearances indicate that the demand for the article will largely increase in the near future, as arrangements are now under way in some of the largest distilleries for the purpose of adapting them so as to use "corn" hereafter in the manufacture of spirits in place of other materials formerly used. Now, as Indian corn is already so succesfully introduced into this market and country, I would venture to suggest that producers or exporters of the article place me in position to disseminate, through the press, information on the subject of "Indian corn as human food." If I were furnished with a statement setting forth the various ways in which it is used for cooking and baking purposes, in the grain or from the meal, I would make an effort to make such information as public as possible, and, I think, with a prospect of success and the result of creating an increased demand for the article.

INDIAN CORN OR MAIZE IMPORTS.

Where from.	Quantities.
	Bushels.
New York	655, 744
Philadelphia	400, 848
Boston	159, 336
Baltimore	65, 200
Total	1, 281, 128

RYE IMPORTS.

Where from.	Quantities.
	Bushels.
Danubian principalities	950, 300
Russian Black Sea ports	280, 500
Russian Baltic ports	306, 000
United States	178, 500
France, Belgium, &c	86, 700
Imports in 1880	1, 802, 000
Stock on hand on January 1, 1880	1, 388, 050
Total	3, 190, 050
Stock on hand on January 1, 1881	221, 850
Total amount of sales in 1880	2, 968, 200

The quantity of rye imported in 1879 was 3,230,000 bushels, and the sales in 1879 amounted to 3,937,200 bushels, which shows a falling off in the imports as compared with those of 1880 of 1,428,000 bushels, and in the year's sales of 969,000 bushels.

WHEAT IMPORTS.

Where from.	Quantities.
	Bushels.
United States	935, 000
Danubian principalities	233, 750
Petersburg and Russian and German Baltic ports	161, 500
The Black Sea ports	157, 250
Imports in 1880	1, 487, 500
Stock on hand on January 1, 1880	133, 450
Total	1, 620, 950
Stock on hand on January 1, 1881	149, 600
Total quantity sold in 1880	1, 471, 350

The imports of wheat in 1879 footed up 1,416,950 bushels, and the sales of that year amounted to 1,572,500 bushels, showing an excess in the imports in favor of 1880 of 70,550 bushels, and a decrease in the sales of 1880, as compared with 1879, of 101,150 bushels.

FLOUR.

The imports of American wheat-flour to this port and into Holland have been slowly but steadily on the increase for several years past, but in 1880 the quantity brought and consumed here by far exceeded the imports of any previous year.

The demand for certain kind, especially the middling and lower grades, promises still further to increase, as for certain purposes it seems peculiarly well adapted for the Dutch market.

What in the trade here is known as Minnesota flour meets with general and particular favor on account of certain superiorities it possesses, and which, especially in bakeries, can be and are turned to advantage. This class of flour is now being substituted to a great extent for Hungarian flour, as it is considerably cheaper and answers nearly as well the same purpose as the latter mentioned.

The great increase in the imports of flour into this country from the United States in 1880 must partly be ascribed to the unfavorable crop of

wheat in 1880 in all the principal wheat-producing countries of Europe, and is further said to have been owing in a degree to the changed and higher tariff on wheat in Germany. The trade has also been assisted by shipping flour here in half and quarter sacks, instead of in barrels as formerly was the practice.

Towards the end of the year transactions in the article were much less animated than during the rest of the year, and this chiefly on account of disappointments having been experienced in previous orders not having been promptly filled. Delays have frequently occurred in expected shipments here, caused by unreasonably long and unaccountable detentions in the railroad transportation of the flour from Western States to New York.

It is claimed that any continued difficulty of this kind is sure to operate most injuriously upon the flour import trade, and that the market here could not and would not depend upon supplies of Western flour unless it could be brought with greater regularity and dispatch by the railroads to the sea-board. The imports of American flour into this port in 1880 amounted to millions of kilograms, of which, however, but a small quantity came here direct. Upon inquiry at Rotterdam I ascertained that by steamers alone arriving from New York during 1880 the quantity of flour brought to that port amounted to 14,194,887 kilograms.

COTTON.

The imports of this staple at Amsterdam during the year 1880 have been considerably less than during any like period for the past ten years.

When the prices of the article are comparatively very low there is a good speculative demand here, and large importations take place, like in 1871, but ordinarily the transactions in the article are not very important.

Many of the largest commercial firms here are yet so deeply interested in business with the India colonies as to absorb their entire attention, and but few are engaged in the import business of cotton.

A new feature in the trade seems to be that exporters in the United States recently entered into competition with the local importers, by direct transactions with the "mills" in the Netherlands.

Prices here have generally ruled a fraction above those in Liverpool, and as port charges and expenses of handling the cotton are very low here it is astonishing that consignments for American account do not more often find their way to this market.

Statement showing the imports of cotton at Amsterdam during the last twenty-five years.

Years.	American.	East India and other sorts.	Total.
	Bales.	*Bales.*	*Bales.*
1856	16,070	4,047	20,117
1857	16,653	19,866	36,519
1858	9,901	11,884	21,789
1859	17,968	9,192	27,160
1860	15,191	17,216	32,407
1861	18,934	7,711	26,645
1862	924	6,761	7,685
1863	.....	6,791	6,791
1864	585	14,073	14,658
1865	106	13,904	14,010
1866	3,155	26,723	29,878
1867	6,881	20,589	27,470
1868	17,427	37,299	54,726

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Statement showing the imports of cotton at Amsterdam, &c.—Continued.

Years.	American.	East India and other sorts.	Total.
	Bales.	*Bales.*	*Bales.*
1869	15,116	50,994	66,110
1870	30,955	25,011	55,966
1871	119,976	43,212	163,188
1872	59,763	103,424	163,187
1873	42,519	24,168	66,687
1874	40,276	19,398	59,674
1875	27,178	28,703	55,881
1876	56,438	37,066	93,504
1877	59,468	15,498	74,966
1878	65,666	21,443	87,109
1879	70,054	28,193	98,247
1880	34,448	13,770	48,218

Weekly quotations of lowest prices for cotton, per pound, at Amsterdam in 1880.

Date.	Middling American.	Good fair Comra.	Good fair Bengal.
	Cents.	*Cents.*	*Cents.*
January 3	15⅞	13⅞	11 7/16
January 10	15⅞	14	11⅜
January 17	16	14	11⅜
January 24	15⅞	14	11⅜
January 31	15⅞	14	11⅜
February 7	16	14	11⅜
February 14	16⅛	14⅛	11⅜
February 21	16⅛	14⅛	11⅜
February 28	16⅛	14⅛	11⅜
March 6	16⅛	14⅛	11⅜
March 13	16⅛	15	11⅜
March 20	16 3/16	15	11⅜
March 27	16⅛	15	11⅜
April 3	16⅛	15	11⅜
April 10	16 1/16	15	11⅜
April 17	15⅞	14⅛	11⅜
April 24	15 13/16	13⅞	11⅜
May 1	15 13/16	13⅞	11⅜
May 8	15 13/16	13⅞	11⅜
May 15	15	12⅞	10⅜
May 22	15	12⅞	10⅜
May 29	14 13/16	12	10⅜
June 5	15	12	10⅜
June 12	15	12	10⅜
June 19	15	12	10⅜
June 26	15	12	10⅜
July 3	14⅞	11⅞	10⅜
July 10	14⅞	11⅞	10⅜
July 17	15	11⅞	10⅜
July 24	14 13/16	11⅞	10⅜
July 31	14 13/16	11⅞	10⅜
August 7	15	11⅞	10⅜
August 14	14⅞	12	10⅜
August 21	15	12	10⅜
August 28	15⅛	12	10⅜
September 4	15	11⅞	10⅜
September 11	15⅛	11⅞	10 7/16
September 18	15⅛	11⅞	10 7/16
September 25	15⅛	12	10 7/16
October 2	15 1/16	12	10 7/16
October 9	15 1/16	12	10 7/16
October 16	15 1/16	12	10 7/16
October 23	15⅛	12⅛	10 7/16
October 30	15⅛	12⅛	10⅜
November 6	15	12⅛	10⅜
November 13	14⅞	12⅛	10⅜
November 20	14 13/16	12⅛	10⅜
November 27	15 1/16	12⅛	11⅛
December 4	15⅛	12⅛	11⅛
December 11	15	12⅛	11⅛
December 18	15⅛	12⅛	11⅛
December 25	15⅛	12⅛	11⅛

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PETROLEUM.

One of the principal firms here engaged in the petroleum trade has just published a review covering the operations in this article during the year 1880, at Amsterdam, and, considering it to convey as trustworthy and correct information as is obtainable on the subject, I embody it in this report verbatim. It is as follows, viz:

Owing to the strong support of a few importers, the interest in the article petroleum at this port in 1880 was very considerable, both by larger imports from America and operations at the neighboring markets. Most of the speculators were gratified with the desired result, particularly those who showed that they placed confidence in the monopoly of the "Standard Oil Company."

The year opened under apparently very unfavorable circumstances for speculators on a rise; that is, with a stock on hand amounting to nearly 600,000 barrels more than in the previous year, the prospect of a smaller consumption during the summer months, and an increasing production in the Bradford district. And under these circumstances prices at first declined, until America, by small offers and (never offering to supply at distant periods) rising quotations, made Europe suppose that a crisis was expected. Those who were greatly interested supported the markets, and every one began to believe that prices would continue to improve, because the conviction was gaining ground that they had to do with only a few parties in America, who, being large possessors of rough oil, and having sufficient control over refined, had the power to drive prices just as they liked. And prices did improve considerably without in any way influencing the consumption, which may even be said to have increased during the past year.

In November, after prices had been stationary for some time in America, and when larger offers of cargoes were made in sundry places, a reaction ensued, and prices for immediate delivery fell pretty rapidly, without purchasers for delivery at distant periods.

The great question, whether this decline would be the precursor of prices more in proportion with the production, which still continued to exceed the consumption, was soon and pretty generally answered in the negative by those who analyzed the state of matters carefully. Even taking it for granted that the reports of decreasing production in the Bradford districts are at variance with the truth, and that the same therefore still amounts to more than 60,000 barrels refined per day, even then it is very improbable that the Standard Oil Company will abandon a position acquired with so much trouble and calculation, when so many natural causes may co-operate just at this moment to enable it to reap the fruits of its labors. For the said company is supported not only by a significant consumption (estimated in America at about 20,000 barrels per day), but also by exceedingly favorable statistics in Europe, the sailing and loading quantity being about 60,000 barrels less than in the previous year, whilst the stock on hand at the various ports is in very firm hands. The trade in petroleum for immediate delivery (as appears from the larger amount delivered) has increased, although the export trade had to contend with the very defective communication by water with the Rhine, in consequence of which all ships navigating the Rhine had to reach Cologne and Mannheim (the principal places for consumption) via Rotterdam.

This not only caused the freight to be higher, but also frequently caused a compulsory detention at Rotterdam, as the vessels could not immediately be taken in tow, which circumstance reacts very injuriously on the trade in an article that is naturally liable to a good deal of leakage.

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Statistics of the Amsterdam Petroleum Entrepot.

	Barrels.
Direct imports from United States in 1880	209,508
Indirect imports from United States in 1880	7,543
Total	217,051

As against 150,209 barrels in 1879; 133,633 barrels in 1878; 65,023 barrels in 1877; 65,507 barrels in 1876; 121,200 barrels in 1875.

Quantity delivered in 1880, 194,414 barrels; 1879, 156,379 barrels; 1878, 110,326 barrels; 1877, 54,738 barrels; 1876, 75,453 barrels; 1875, 123,200 barrels.

	Barrels.
Stock on hand January 1, 1880	27,874
Direct imports in 1880	209,508
Indirect imports in 1880	7,543
Total	244,925
Delivered during 1880	194,414
Stock on hand December 31, 1880	50,511
Sailing	13,450
Loading	25,000
Total	88,961

As against same date in 1879, 84,405 barrels; 1878, 47,797 barrels; 1877, 33,390 barrels; 1876, 16,034 barrels; 1875, 28,181 barrels.

Statement showing highest and lowest prices in each month during the year 1880, *for direct deliveries out of entrepot.*

In January	$4.00 and	$3.60 against	$4.20 and	$4.40 in 1879
In February	3.50 and	3.70 against	4.60 and	4.40 in 1879
In March	3.60 and	3.70 against	4.50 and	4.25 in 1879
In April	3.70 and	3.50 against	4.50 and	4.30 in 1879
In May	3.50 and	3.45 against	4.20 and	4.10 in 1879
In June	3.50 and	4.00 against	4.05 and	3.60 in 1879
In July	4.40 and	4.60 against	3.70 and	3.40 in 1879
In August	4.10 and	4.55 against	3.40 and	3.20 in 1879
In September	4.60 and	5.40 against	3.50 and	4.00 in 1879
In October	5.50 and	5.35 against	3.90 and	4.00 in 1879
In November	5.20 and	4.80 against	3.90 and	4.60 in 1879
In December	4.60 and	4.80 against	4.10 and	3.90 in 1879

TOBACCO.

Maryland.—The extent of the actual transactions, covering imports and sales in this article, is impossible to ascertain, as the greater proportion of the total imports is said to have been for the account of second hands, and was not disposed of at public sales, therefore not officially quoted.

In the spring of the year there was quite an unexpected and considerable demand for the common sorts, causing an advance in prices and the sale of a large quantity which had been imported and held here on speculation since 1878.

Middling qualities were continually scarce and in demand, yet the difference in prices as between Baltimore and here was such as to discourage importers from placing them in this market. The trade in Maryland tobacco, I am most credibly informed, is being much injured here in consequence of the tobacco frequently turning out poorer than, or not according to, samples, and confidence in the Baltimore inspectors is therefore sadly shaken.*

*See also report of Consul Grinnell, of Bremen, on this important subject, page 112, and report of Consul Jones, of Newcastle-upon-Tyne, page 114, No. 3.

That the colors of first receipts of a crop should sometimes turn out badly is expected and attributed to the too early packing; but again, it is claimed that a much closer scrutiny is essential if certain unfair practices in packing are to cease.

Mason County tobacco, especially for the bright-colored leaves for cutting purposes, has been in constant demand at moderate prices, but was held too high in price during the early part of the year for this market.

Seed-leaf.—Of seed-leaf the direct imports from the districts of its production were much larger in 1880 than usual, in consequence of which there was a great falling off in the imports of the article from Bremen as compared with former years. Price-worthy seed-leaf tobacco is regarded at all times in this market as a competitor of importance to all other sorts of tobacco.

Statement showing the imports of tobacco at Amsterdam, from all parts, the quantity sold in 1880, and the stock on hand in January, 1880 and 1881.

	Java.	Sumatra.	Manila.	Ceram.	Brazil.
	Packages.	*Packages.*	*Packages.*	*Packages.*	*Packages.*
Stock, January 1, 1880	4,077	.....	375	.....	85
Imported in 1880	33,881	52,631	775	59	339
Sold in 1880	35,309	52,154	1,000	59	376
Stock, January 1, 1881	2,649	477	150	.....	48

	East Indian.	Havana.	Maryland.	Virginia and Kentucky.	Seed-leaf.
	Packages.	*Packages.*	*Hogsheads.*	*Hogsheads.*	*Cases.*
Stock, January 1, 1880	5,200	.....	2,053	261	.....
Imported in 1880	500	22	5,179	173	1,177
Sold in 1880	1,700	22	5,973	201	1,023
Stock, January 1, 1881	4,000	.....	1,259	233	154

D. ECKSTEIN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Amsterdam, February 28, 1881.

THE LEATHER INDUSTRY OF ITALY.

REPORT BY CONSUL CRAIN, OF MILAN.

I have the honor to submit herewith some statistics of the leather industry in Italy, and with a view more especially to direct the attention of American manufacturers and dealers to what may be made a profitable market for their product. It will appear by the subjoined tables that although the manufacture of leather is carried on in all the Italian provinces, the product is by no means equal to the wants of the nation, and that a large deficiency has annually to be supplied from other countries. This importation is in the main from France, Great Britain, Germany, and Austro-Hungary, and more recently to a limited extent from India. Inquiries made of dealers here show that leather from the United States has found its way at times, during the past ten years, into the Italian markets, but in small parcels. It has been principally our hemlock-tanned sole-leather, and was reshipped from Germany.

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The tanning industry is divided among the several provinces as follows:

Departments.	Number of tanneries.	Horse-power.		Number of workmen.		
		Steam.	Water.	Adults.		
				Males.	Females.	Children.
Piedmont	176	61	355	1,313	43	112
Liguria	75	92	7	528	.....	65
Lombardy	144	9	113	1,424	.....	120
Venice	88	32	73	927	14	76
Emilia	74	.....	4	515	.....	28
Umbria	28	.....	11	151	.....	25
Marshes	34	30	48	366	4	32
Tuscany	116	.....	11	1,211	.....	119
Rome	39	10	.....	187	.....	13
Abruzzi and Molisi	31	.....	.....	109	.....	6
Campania	156	25	10	984	64	266
Puglie	119	.....	.....	333	.....	35
Basilicata	22	.....	10	63	.....	7
Calabria	81	.....	.....	165	.....	12
Sicily	96	.....	.....	1,019	.....	181
Sardinia	36	.....	.....	192	.....	6
Total	1,316	259	642	9,487	125	1,122

The tanneries are mostly small, as appears by the number of workmen employed, but in many of them water and steam power are used.

The following tables show the importation and exportation of raw hides, leather, and articles made of leather, from 1869 to 1879, both years inclusive:

IMPORTATION.

Years.	Products.		
	Raw hides.	Leather.	Articles made of leather.
	Quintals.	*Quintals.*	*Quintals.*
1869	129,103	13,188	4,252
1870	98,876	10,552	3,683
1871	113,743	11,505	3,940
1872	127,202	11,705	3,751
1873	181,434	11,423	4,629
1874	136,761	12,165	4,092
1875	141,752	13,535	2,758
1876	139,202	16,350	2,840
1877	134,987	15,376	2,721
1878	106,621	15,719	3,095
1879	126,178	15,733	2,950

EXPORTATION.

Years.	Products.		
	Raw hides.	Leather.	Articles made of leather.
	Quintals.	*Quintals.*	*Quintals.*
1869	17,885	2,474	359
1870	16,673	3,842	958
1871	17,961	11,898	3,562
1872	20,435	20,754	484
1873	18,005	9,940	711
1874	18,630	12,238	1,044
1875	42,590	13,422	695
1876	20,188	7,810	755
1877	21,654	8,383	868
1878	25,600	10,028	1,250
1879	30,725	11,864	843

It is impossible to determine the precise nature of the articles which in the third category of these tables are classed as "articles made of leather," and which are designated under the general head of *Mercerie* in the custom-house books. One-fifth of the hides used in the tanneries are necessarily imported, as the number of cattle slaughtered, in proportion to the population, is small, owing to the limited use of meat as food by the Italians.

Signor Vittorio Ellena, the industrious statistician to whose work on Italian industries I am indebted for valuable data, observes that the importation of leather will be diminished and the exportation increased when the Italian tanneries produce better leather and the home manufacture of leather products is extended.

The following is an extract from the general tariff of May, 1878, the duties being expressed in gold lire:

Denomination of merchandise.	Limit.	Duties.	
		On importation.	On exportation.
Category XI.		*Lire.*	*Lire.*
Skins:			
Crude, fresh, or dry, not goods from a furriery	Quintals	Free.	2.20
Crude, fresh, or dry from a furriery	do	5	2.20
Tanned with the hair, fine	do	60	.....
Tanned with the hair, common	do	30	.....
Simply tanned without the hair, i. e., taken from the vats and not (refined) finished	do	25	.....
Varnished	do	100	.....
Tanned without hair, finished, not otherwise enumerated	do	30	.....
Tanned, of goat, and lamb	do	20	.....

Under the foregoing, sole leather pays $4.82, calfskins $5.79, per 220.46 pounds.

The following are the prices in the Milan market:

Description.	Weight in kilos.	Price.
		Lire.
Sole leather (foreign)	6 to 8	2.40 to 3.50
Sole leather (Italian)	6 to 9	3.10 to 3.30
Do	9 to 12	3.10 to 3.30
Do	12 to 14	3.20 to 3.40
Sole leather, smooth (Italian)	6 to 10	3.20 to 3.40
"Boudrier," average (Italian)	10 to 14	3.20 to 3.40
"Boudrier," fine (Italian)	5 to 6	3.50 to 3.70
Raw calf, untanned (Italian)	4 to 5	3.60 to 4.00
Do	1 to 2	5.00 to 5.40
Do	2 to 3	4.20 to 4.50
Young cow (heifer), untanned (Italian)	3 to 4	3.80 to 4.20
Do	4 to 6	3.80 to 3.30
Young cow (heifer), untanned (foreign)	6 to 9	3.50 to 3.20
Do	1 to 2	4.35 to 4.00
Do	2 to 3	4.00 to 3.75
Young cow (heifer), untanned ordinary	3 to 4	3.75 to 3.50
Dressed leather for saddlery	2 to 4	3.25 to 2.75
Very fine	3 to 5	8.00 to 10.00
Id fine	3 to 5	6.00 to 8.00
Polished calfskins for harness	1 to 4	8.00 to 12.00
Dressed leather for plain harness	2 to 4	4.00 to 5.00
Dressed leather, black, extra	4 to 6	5.00 to 5.50
Dressed leather, black, first quality	5 to 7	4.00 to 5.00
Dressed leather, black, second quality	6 to 8	3.50 to 4.00
Dressed leather, black, third quality	6 to 8	3.00 to 3.50

These prices may be taken as a criterion for those elsewhere in Italy.

Through the courtesy of Isaac H. Bailey, esq., proprietor of the New York Shoe and Leather Reporter, this Consulate has been supplied

with that paper, by means of which I have been enabled to furnish leather merchants here full and accurate data as to American leathers.

DUNHAM J. CRAIN,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Milan, March 30, 1881.

IMPORTATION OF BEER INTO ITALY.

REPORT BY CONSUL CRAIN, OF MILAN.

I beg leave to submit some facts in regard to the importation of beer into Italy, with a view to directing the attention of American brewers and dealers to an untried market. The present appears an opportune moment, inasmuch as the rapid appreciation of Italian paper money facilitates importation. The buying medium of the country (its *corso forzoso*, or legal tender) is increased as to foreign articles in the ratio of the fall in the gold premium. Again, the ravages of the phylloxera in France and Germany and its threatened inroad into the vineyards of Italy have already enhanced the price of wine and caused beer to be largely substituted for it. Independent of the increasing cost of wine, beer has of late been popularized as a beverage among Italians, and its consumption will doubtless be yearly augmented. The quantity of beer manufactured in Italy is inconsiderable and the quality is poor. Lastly, in this connection I would state that the decrease in the Italian import duty on beer is important. Prior to January, 1879, beer, under the "tariffa generale," paid a duty of $2.89 per 105.65 quarts in barrels and the same for every 100 bottles. But at that date was ratified the treaty between Italy and Austria-Hungary, which establishes the duty at 37½ cents United States gold on the foregoing quantities; and this applies to beer from the United States by virtue of Article XXIV of the Treaty of Commerce and Navigation, concluded between Italy and the United States in 1871.

The following statistics, collected at railway stations on the northern frontier, show the number of barrels of beer and kinds imported overland into Italy during the year 1880, and places of destination:

Destination.	Schreiner.	Liesing.	Dreher Wein.	Puntigam.	Reininghaus.	Dreher Triest.
	Barrels.	*Barrels.*	*Barrels.*	*Barrels.*	*Barrels.*	*Barrels.*
Ancona	625	.....	468	.....	.....	.....
Bergamo	.....	160	.....	.....	.....	.....
Bologna	3,877	1,240	2,505	.....	.....	.....
Florence	.....	.....	593	.....	.....	.....
Genoa	2,101	.....	2,945	.....	1,660	.....
Leghorn	1,370	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Milan	9,290	6,040	4,906	1,482	1,250	.....
Naples	1,312	.....	1,242	.....	.....	.....
Nice, France	10,548	435	.....	.....	257	.....
Novara	.....	.....	260	441	.....	.....
Padua	.....	.....	.....	3,111	.....	.....
Rome	.....	1,055	1,744	.....	.....	.....
Rovigo	.....	2,167	.....	20	.....	.....
Turin	103	4,085	1,918	.....	.....	.....
Udine	12,602	3,780	.....	1,543	2,342	1,599
Verona	.....	449	.....	425	152	.....
Venice	720	60	.....	4,515	76	.....
Total	42,848	22,677	17,073	7,989	5,787	1,599
Grand total	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	97,973

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By reference to Consular Reports I find that for the year ending September 30, 1879, there was entered at the port of Leghorn 15,000 casks and 7,652 bottles of beer, stated as from the "United States, Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, England, Holland, Spain, Portugal, and Tunis"; but in the list of chief imports from the United States and Canada no mention is made of beer.

DUNHAM J. CRAIN.
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Milan, April 2, 1880.

THE ALIEN LAW OF ROUMANIA.

REPORT BY MR. SCHUYLER, CHARGÉ D'AFFAIRS.

I have the honor to inform you that a law has been passed by the chambers, and officially promulgated on April 18, empowering the government to expel from the country foreigners who may compromise public order. A translation of this law is inclosed herewith.

It was considered necessary to pass this alien law on account of the peculiar situation of the country between Austria and Russia, and especially on account of the recent assassination of the Emperor of Russia. The Russian authorities had for a long lime accused the Roumanian Government of allowing Roumania to be made a center of Nihilistic and revolutionary intrigues, and Mr. Bratiano considered some law of this kind as absolutely necessary to preserve good relations with the three empires; indeed, the recognition of the kingdom was delayed for some days in consequence of the wish of Russia to obtain guarantees of some kind from the Roumanian Government against the Nihilists. After some correspondence between the governments of Russia, Germany, and Austria-Hungary, it was decided not to make any condition to the recognition, and not even to present a written note. The ministers of the three powers were, however, instructed to congratulate on the same day, and in congratulating to add the phrase: "Expressing at the same time the hope that this will serve as a new guarantee for order and for the accomplishment of international obligations." These exact words were transmitted by telegraph to each of the three ministers by their respective governments.

The law was introduced into the senate before this declaration was made. In the chamber it met with considerable opposition, especially among the liberals, and was passed only with the aid of the conservatives by 44 against 28, three members not voting. The main provisions of the law, especially article 7, against regicide, were copied from the Belgian law on the same subject, which was passed under somewhat similar circumstances, if I am not mistaken, after the Orsini attempt. Article 6, however, with respect to the necessity of obtaining tickets of residence within ten days, was added in the senate, and is severely criticised by the foreign representatives here. I agree with the Belgian minister in considering it contrary to the provisions of our treaties with Roumania. He made representations on the subject at the foreign office before the passage of the law, and was informed that the government would always use discretion in carrying it out. As the treaty with the United States has not yet been ratified, I judged it best to make no representations on the subject at present. In all probability ordinary

travelers living at hotels will not be troubled. It should, however, be plainly understood by all Americans coming to Roumania that passports are absolutely necessary.

EUGENE SCHUYLER,
Chargé d'Affaires.

UNITED STATES LEGATION,
Bucharest, April 20, 1881.

[Translation.]

LAW WITH REGARD TO ALIENS.

ARTICLE I. An alien who has his domicile or his residence in Roumania, and who by his conduct shall compromise during his sojourn in the country the internal or external security of the State, who shall trouble public order, or shall take part in any intrigues having for their object the upsetting of political or social order, whether in the country or abroad, may be forced by the government to remove from the place in which he is staying to reside in a place expressly named, or even to leave the country.

ART. II. The ministerial decision of expulsion taken in the council of ministers, or that by which the alien is restricted to a fixed residence, or by which he is obliged to change his residence, shall be notified to the alien administratively, and without giving any reason. There shall be indicated the time in which the alien must submit to the order of expulsion or change of residence, and this time must not be less than twenty-four hours.

ART. III. On receiving an order of expulsion the alien may indicate the point of the frontier by which he wishes to pass. In this case he will be given a road pass, on which shall be indicated the itinerary that he must follow, and the time during which he can stop in each place up to the frontier. In case of contravention of one of these dispositions the alien may be conducted out of the country by the public force.

ART. IV. The government may also order the expulsion from the country of the alien who shall have quitted the town or locality in which he has been ordered to reside.

ART. V. The alien who, after his expulsion from the country, shall return within the territory of Roumania shall be immediately arrested, and for this fact brought before the police court and condemned to an imprisonment of not less than five days or more than six months. At the expiration of his punishment he shall be conducted to the frontier without having the right of indicating the point at which he wishes to leave the country.

ART. VI. An alien newly arrived in the country who shall not have any domicile or residence must within ten days after his arrival or after the promulgation of this law obtain a ticket of residence (*carte de libre séjour*) from the police or the local administration for the whole time that he wishes to remain or travel in the country. A regulation of public administration shall determine the procedure to be followed for the practical application of this disposition.

ART. VII. An attempt against the person of the chief of a foreign state or against the members of his family, when this attempt constitutes an act of homicide, assassination, or poisoning, shall not be considered as a political crime, or as an act connected with such a crime.

COMMERCE OF THE SULINA MOUTH OF THE DANUBE.

REPORT BY CHARGÉ D'AFFAIRES SCHUYLER.

The commerce passing through the mouth of the Danube was much less in 1880 than during the preceding year. This was owing chiefly to the badness of the maize crop in 1879. Leaving out the three small Russian ports of Reni, Ismail, and Kilia, the amount of cereals exported from Roumanian ports during 1879 was 5,027,172 quarters, and in 1880, 4,007,203 quarters, showing a falling off of 1,019,969 quarters.

The actual falling off in the exportation of maize from the Roumanian ports was 1,357,379 quarters. It is difficult to tell what proportion the export from the Roumanian ports, through the Sulina mouth of the Danube, bears to the total export of Roumania, because the statistics for the mouth of the Danube are collected by the European commission, and the quantities are expressed in quarters, while those for the whole of Roumania are collected by the government and the quantities are

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expressed in kilograms, or by their value in francs. We know the value, for example, of the cereals exported in 1879 to Austria-Hungary, and to Turkey and Bulgaria, but we do not know how much of this was sent by the Danube, how much was sent over the Danube, how much crossed the land frontier, and how much went by the Black Sea railway and was shipped by the port of Kustendjé. In any case the deficiency in the exportation of cereals for 1880 will make a considerable difference in the balance of trade and in the financial situation of Roumania.

It is worth noting that French trade with the Danube ports is increasing. While there were 43 French steamers in 1878, and 49 in 1879, there were 58 even in this bad year, 1880, while Austrian steamers were 12 less, English 117 less, and Russian 10 less.

EUGENE SCHUYLER,
Charge d' Affaires.

UNITED STATES LEGATION,
Bucharest, March 12, 1881.

ARTISANS' INDUSTRIAL EXHIBITION IN RUSSIA—A FIELD FOR AMERICAN AGRICULTURAL MACHINERY.

REPORT BY MR. BOMHOLDT, CONSULAR AGENT AT RIGA.

I have the honor to inclose prospectus and programme for the Artisans' Trade Exhibition at Riga, in 1882, with translation attached, and although, as you will observe from the programme, the exhibition is principally a local or perhaps national one, and that foreign exhibits are excluded from competition for prizes; still it is one to which I think the attention of manufacturers in the United States should be drawn.

I would principally desire to draw the attention of makers of agricultural machinery and implements to the fact that there is a wide field for their products in the Baltic provinces, and a good show of these articles would be certain to command great attention. Any kind of machinery suitable for the Russian market would, I am sure, be duly appreciated.

NIELS P. A. BOMHOLDT,
Consular Agent.

UNITED STATES CONSULAR AGENCY,
Riga, February 10, 1880.

PROSPECTUS OF THE ARTISANS' TRADES EXHIBITION AT RIGA.

PROSPECTUS.

The Artisans' Club at Riga having decided on holding a trades exhibition at Riga, in 1882, and having got the magisterial sanction to their undertaking, the execution of the extensive project has been intrusted to a committee which has constituted itself into "The executive committee for the Artisans' Trades Exhibition at Riga, 1882."

The executive committee is well aware of the difficulties which will surround the projected undertaking, nevertheless does not hesitate to go on with same, as the proposed exhibition, which will serve the interests of the whole empire as much as the welfare of our own community, continually gains ground and finds sympathy in large circles. Looking at the salutary influence which experience teaches us trades exhibitions are enabled to exercise on the development of the smaller trades as well as on the larger industries, looking also at the advantages which such exhibitions generally

offer to the exhibitors, not only in enlarged facilities for the sale of goods, but also in stimulation and instruction, the executive committee confidently hopes to reckon on universal and energetical assistance in their undertaking.

It will be our aim to endeavor that the exhibition shall show a complete and true picture of our accomplishments in the different branches of our trades and industries.

We will bear witness to the present state of our abilities and make it clear to ourselves in which directions improvements are most desirable. This result, however, will only be completely attained when the executive committee is not disappointed in its expectations of assistance from all circles, and we therefore earnestly request all who are connected with trades and industries, all who take an interest in the progressing development of industry, to support and further this undertaking.

The executive committee for the Artisans' Trades Exhibition at Riga, in 1882.

(Here follow the signatures.)

RIGA, *December*, 1880.

PROGRAMME OF THE ARTISANS' TRADES EXHIBITION.

§ 1. The Trades Exhibition at Riga, in 1882, aims at producing a picture of our accomplishments in all branches of our trades and industries, in order, on the one hand, to bear witness to the abilities and the efforts of the home country, and on the other hand to give an opportunity of acknowledging the errors and wants of the products of our country, and through this to incite to greater efforts to lessen these errors. The principal aim of the exhibition will consequently be instruction.

§ 2. The exhibition lasts from the 28th May, O. S. (9th June, N. S.), to the 15th July, O. S. (27th July, N. S.), but the executive committee reserves to itself the right of prolonging the exhibition not beyond three weeks should such a course seem desirable.

§ 3. For exhibition will be accepted—

a. All trades productions of the home country.

b. Foreign products as far as they can serve the home trades for instruction and aid, giving special preference to machinery for small trades (*vide* § 10).

Further is intended—

c. An exhibition of school arrangements and requisites for teaching, to enlighten schoolmasters and others on the arrangements of schools and those objects which, in accordance with the spirit of the present age, are necessary for teaching.

Further—

d. An exhibition of artistical products of the trades and professions of former times now in possession of private persons or in museums.

§ 4. A commission appointed by the executive committee decides on the admission of the exhibits. This commission has also the power to demand evidence as to the origin of the exhibits.

§ 5. The exhibits will be divided into 20 groups. The exhibits of each group will be systematically arranged. Endeavors will be made to unite similar products in one show, to unite different products which form one whole and serve one purpose, and also to show the manufacturing of some articles in the exhibition in order to illustrate the production to the general public.

§ 6. The following constitute the 20 groups, viz:

A. *Textile products:* (as goods manufactured of wool, cotton, flax, jute, hemp, hair, silk, &c.)

B. *Wearing apparel and bedding:* (as garments, linen, shoes, boots, millinery, hats, gloves, articles made from hair, furs, mattresses, pillows, &c.)

C. *Leather and rubber goods:* (as leather and rubber goods of every description, harness, &c.)

D. *Hardware and playthings:* (as buttons, sticks, umbrellas, brushes, turnery, carved work, fancy goods in leather, bronze, and paper, &c.)

E. *Stone, glass, and earthen ware:* (as porcelain, chinaware, mirror, table, and hollow glass, &c.)

F. *Provisions and delicacies:* (as flour, and products of flour, sugar and confectionery, chocolate, preserves, wines, and mineral waters, manufactured tobacco, &c.)

G. *Chemicals:* (as all kind of chemical products, dye-goods, products of tar, artificial manures, materials for heating and lighting, grease, oils, soaps, perfumeries, &c.)

H. *Paper making and requisites for writing and drawing:* (as paper, pasteboard, paper-hangings, book-binding materials, and requisites for writing, drawing, and painting, &c.)

J. *Printing, &c.:* (as publications, hylography, lithography, and photography, engraving, printing, &c.)

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K. *Instruction:* (as requisites for teaching, requisites for school, arrangements of school-rooms.)
L. *Sundry apparatuses and instruments.*
M. *Musical instruments of any kind.*
N. *Materials for illuminating purposes.*
O. *Building and engineering:* (as building materials (in original and artificial state), railway building, house, dam, and bridge building (sketches and models), aqueducts, complete arrangements of rooms, &c.)
P. *Products of wood:* (as carpenters' and joiners' work, frame-wood (in original and gilded state), match-wood, wheelwrights' work, basket-making, &c.)
Q. *Metallurgy.*
R. *Machinery and means of transport:* (as all kinds of machinery for lifting and other purposes, all kinds of details providing for the safety of boilers, machines and apparatus for making provisions and beverages, locomotives, traction-engines, railway carriages and wagons, all kinds of means of conveyance, machinery for paper-making and printing, &c.)
S. *Works of art and production of fine metals.*
T. *Antiquities:* prospected.
U. *Horticulture.*

§ 7. The instructions as to the delivery of the exhibits will be published in a separate exhibition notice.

§ 8. The entries for the exhibition close on the 10th October, O. S. (13th October, N. S.), 1881.

§ 9. All exhibits must be delivered before the end of April, 1882. Articles liable to decay will be received later, a notice of which will be inserted in the above-mentioned exhibition notice.

§ 10. Prizes will be given by appointed judges to prominent objects. The principles of the prize-classes will be laid down by a special commission. Inland products without selling price, except those belonging to group S (works of art, &c.), and all exhibits from foreign countries will be excluded from the competition for prizes.

§ 11. It is desirable that exhibitors should give particulars of the extent of their production, and the principal districts of consumption.

§ 12. No exhibits will be allowed to be removed before the closing of the exhibition, except by the special permission of the executive committee.

§ 13. The executive committee is prepared to undertake the sale of exhibits, charging a moderate commission for so doing. A continuous sale inside the exhibition can only take place after agreement with the executive committee.

§ 14. In effecting fire insurance, in recommending forwarding agents, in endeavoring to get reduced tariffs from railways and steamship companies, as well as in reduction of customs duties, and in placing exhibits in the most favorable manner the executive committee will do their utmost to further the interests of exhibitors.

THE LUMBER TRADE OF NORWAY.

REPORT BY CONSUL GADE, OF CHRISTIANIA.

I have the honor to transmit you some details on the lumber trade of Norway in 1880, taken from a report recently published by the directors of the lumber association in Christiania.

During the year 1880 the lumbering firms had marked 185,395 dozens of logs, which, with a loss of only three per cent., were floated down the Glommen River to their destination and delivered to their owners or at their mills. The result proved much better than was anticipated in the spring and summer, which were usually dry seasons. The timber-floating was considered successful in almost all the Norwegian rivers, as of the whole quantity destined for floating throughout the country, viz, 680,000 dozens of logs, only 54,000 dozens or, 8 per cent., remained in the rivers.

Sweden was not so fortunate. In the rivers emptying in the Gulf of Bothnia, only 500,000 dozens out of 890,000 dozens of old and new timber reached its destination.

By calculating the average price in 1880 of the timber delivered for for floating in the Glommer, from reports of more than 100,000 dozen,

we find that the gross value of a dozen of logs was 25.26 crowns. The forest owners of that district cashed 4,683,084 crowns for their products. If we deduct the producers' expenses for cutting, gathering, transporting, and floating the lumber in the tributaries to the Glommer River, estimated at 1,345,000 crowns, the net profit in 1880 for the forest owners will be 3,338,000 crowns, or about 18 crowns per dozen.

Norway exported in 1880 an aggregate quantity of 894,816 register tons of lumber of every description to the following countries:

	Per cent.
To England 597,061 register tons, or	67
To France 99,017 register tons, or	11
To Holland 58,942 register tons, or	6.5
To Denmark 35,961 register tons, or	4
To Belgium 32,791 register tons, or	3.7
To Australia 11,575 register tons, or	1.3
To Africa 7,647 register tons, or	0.9
To Sweden 9,073 register tons, or	1
To Iceland and the Faroe Islands 1,977 register tons, or	0.2
To Spain 4,633 register tons, or	0.5
To German ports 36,203 register tons, or	4

By comparing the foregoing figures with those of the export lists in previous years, we observe that Norway has only in the favorable years 1871, '72, '73, '74, and '76 exported larger quantities than in 1880.

The export of planed wood is always on the increase, and amounted in 1880 to more than a fifth part of the whole export. That article has increased from 96,445 tons in 1870 to 193,654 tons in 1880.

Sawed timber has declined from 428,553 tons in 1870 to 245,548 in 1880. Square timber and other hewn timber has declined from 169,743 to 100,361 tons. Spars, mining timber, and pit-props have risen from 100,552 to 295,616 tons. Staves have risen from 19,631 to 30,061 tons, and small cut fuel has fallen from 67,305 to 29,576 tons.

Among foreign markets, England ranks first in an increased importation since 1879 of 156,498 tons; of this, 32,745 tons were planed lumber, 37,504 tons hewn timber, and 85,580 tons spars, mining timber, props, &c. Next to England comes France with an increase from 1879 of 26,567 tons, 4,355 tons of which were planed timber, 17,967 sawed, 2,639 square timber, and 1,739 staves. This country imported in 1870 only 7,869 tons planed timber from Norway, but in 1880 the importation reached 19,963 tons.

Germany has declined considerably on account of the protective tariff which was carried into force on October 1, 1879. The export in 1880 was only 36,203 tons to 59,762 in 1879, a difference of 23,559 tons, which fell chiefly on planed lumber; the reduction in that export being 23,303 tons.

The new market which the Norwegian planing works have found in Holland promises well. The duty on planed boards, which formerly made shipments to that country impossible, was taken off in 1879. The planed timber imported into Holland before 1880 passed for the greater part to Germany, but that, of course, came to an end on the 1st of October, 1879. We may therefore calculate that the 19,862 tons exported in 1880 to Holland remained in that country.

In regard to Australia we can give no accurate figures, as much lumber from Norway reaches there via England. The direct export in 1880 is a good deal larger than the average export since 1870, which was 7,787 tons.

Africa is rapidly increasing. In 1870, 823 tons; 1879, 3,806 tons; 1880, 7,647 tons. As long as the duties in Spain continue unchanged, that country will be of no importance for the lumber trade of Norway.

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The export to Belgium has increased, but the duties in that country also prove an obstacle to the trade.

GERHARD GADE,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Christiania, February 18, 1881.

MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES OF SWEDEN.

REPORT BY CONSUL OPPENHEIM, OF GOTHENBURG.

I have the honor to submit for your consideration certain excerpts from the recently published official statistics of Sweden, relating to the manufactures and industries of the country during 1879. Table No. 1, herewith transmitted, shows the values of each separate branch of manufacture, its ratio to the total value, the number of establishments and of the operatives employed.

No. 2 shows values of the manufactures produced in each of the governmental divisions of the kingdom; the country is for administrative purposes, divided into 24 provinces (läns), and one metropolitan district, the latter comprising the city of Stockholm and its immediate vicinity. The figures are, as might be expected, highest for the sections wherein the large towns are situated in the southern provinces, industrial activity, when considered in connection with the dense population there existing, seems to be low (Malmohus Län excepted), and the great fertility of the soil in these districts is probably one of the main causes. Throughout the country the vast bulk of the population lives on and by the land, each family owning or having its little farm or patch, and as long as a living can be made out of the soil the people are not likely to be seduced away from it; hence the movement of the rural population into the towns, although it exists, is probable at a lower ebb in Sweden than in any country of Central or Western Europe.

This state of things, though possibly open to cavil upon economic grounds, has certainly many compensations for the material benefits it lacks. No one acquainted with the circumstances of this manly, honest people will wish to see them join in the general race for industrial greatness on which the leading nations of our day seem to have entered. Overpopulation would here as elsewhere have brought about the impoverishment of the peasantry, had not the safety-valve of emigration given relief; there are also yet large tracts of almost virgin land in the northern provinces, into which a moderate number of settlers from the more densely populated districts find their way every year. These provinces, Norrbotten, Westerbotten, Jemtland, and Westernorrland, probably constitute the largest compact body of timber land to be found in Europe outside of Russia. The population is very scant, and the manufacturing activity very insignificant. It would be, however, erroneous to suppose that the people are altogether dependent upon other sections for manufactured commodities; a vast amount of household industry exists, and during the long winter of these high latitudes almost every family is engaged at some kind of industrial labor; coarse textiles and furniture are the chief articles produced; in the latter branch a very creditable amount of skill is exhibited, and some of the carved oak furniture from Norrland, that came under my observation, bore the impress of nascent artistic taste. This home industry is not analyzed in the official statis-

tics, and only vague data are given; for the province of Elfsborg, however, where the household production of textiles has taken a great development, a few figures are mentioned; the quantity of cotton and woolen textiles produced there by household industry during 1879 was 25,600,000 Swedish feet, equivalent to 8,312,576 yards of cloth, usually of a width of about 30 inches; this, for a population of somewhat less than 290,000 people, is certainly a large product.

The number of the artisan class, meaning thereby tailors, shoemakers, carpenters, blacksmiths, &c., or those engaged in the smaller manufactures carried on by the master alone, or with the help of few hands, is given for the close of 1879 at 20,850 masters and 30,559 workmen; of these, 10,130 masters and 21,360 workmen resided in the towns.

ERNEST L. OPPENHEIM,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE.
Gothenburg, March 26, 1881.

TABLE No. 1.—*Statement showing values, &c., of the manufacturing industries of Sweden during the calendar year* 1879.

Character of establishment.	Value of product of 1879.	Per cent. of total.	No. of establishments.	No. of operatives.
	Swed. crowns.			
Foundries and machine shops	17,830,000	13.27	223	8,461
Sugar refineries	15,061,000	11.22	9	997
Cotton spinneries	10,815,000	8.06	25	3,347
Tobacco mills	10,345,000	7.71	106	3,220
Cotton-weaving mills	9,054,000	6.75	25	3,492
Cloth factories (woolen)	7,031,000	5.24	38	2,902
Breweries	6,818,000	5.08	122	1,691
Paper mills	5,936,000	4.42	50	2,027
Match factories	5,406,000	4.03	28	3,420
Tanneries	4,948,000	3.69	665	1,675
Scroll, planing, and turning mills	3,448,000	2.57	37	1,629
Chemical works	2,527,000	1.88	70	512
Glass works	2,065,000	1.54	29	1,533
Dyeing works	1,951,000	1.45	340	1,144
Soap factories	1,834,000	1.37	13	135
Paper-pulp mills	1,703,000	1.27	24	901
Gas works	1,508,000	1.12	26	471
Porcelain factories	1,443,000	1.08	2	828
Mills turning out woolen or half-woolen textile manufactures, not cloth	1,375,000	1.02	9	361
Ship-yards	1,351,000	1.01	27	902
Lithographic establishments	1,315,000	.98	12	460
Brick-yards	1,291,000	.96	208	2,395
Oil works	1,212,000	.90	24	151
Hardware factories (iron and steel goods)	1,171,000	.87	54	905
Candle factories	1,106,000	.82	2	155
Tile works and potteries	769,000	.57	68	666
Woolen spinneries	635,000	.47	62	308
Wall-paper mills	633,000	.47	10	210
Stone-cutting works	629,000	.47	25	1,482
Silk factories	626,000	.47	2	298
Linen-spinning mills	577,000	.43	1	206
Yeast factories	560,000	.42	2	39
Cork factories	559,000	.42	11	211
Machine-gun works	550,000	.41	1	181
Sail-duck and tent-cloth mills	547,000	.41	2	263
Tin-ware factories	512,000	.38	8	197
Brass and bronze foundries	506,000	.38	21	263
Miscellaneous establishments	8,582,000	6.39	425	4,401
Total	134,210,000	100.00	2,806	52,459
Totals for the years 1875–1878 were:				
1875	172,728,092	.....	2,719	61,069
1876	173,094,961	.....	2,825	61,414
1877	167,605,364	.....	2,868	60,589
1878	145,211,230	.....	2,828	55,315

NOTE.—The Swedish crown = $0.268.

TABLE No. 2.—*Statement showing the value of manufactures produced in each province of Sweden during the calendar year 1879.*

Province or district.	Value of product.
	Swedish crowns.
Göteborg and Bohus Län	25, 949, 000
Stockholm (Metropolitan district)	24, 687, 000
Östergotlands Län	18, 981, 000
Malmöhus Län	15, 729, 000
Elfsborgs Län	9, 678, 000
Jonköpings Län	6, 916, 000
Stockholm Län	3, 936, 000
Södermanlands Län	3, 705, 000
Gefleborgs Län	3, 260, 000
Blekinge Län	2, 669, 000
Kalmar Län	2, 546, 000
Vermlands Län	2, 537, 000
Kronobergs Län	2, 161, 000
Skaraborgs Län	2, 148, 000
Hallands Län	1, 956, 000
Vestmanlands Län	1, 403, 000
Kristianstads Län	1, 256, 000
Örebro Län	1, 190, 000
Westernorrlands Län	1, 032, 000
Upsala Län	908, 000
Kopparbergs Län	607, 000
Jemtlands Län	353, 000
Norrbottens Län	259, 000
Gotlands Län	223, 000
Vesterbottens Län	64, 000
Total	134, 210, 000

SWEDISH RAILWAYS.

REPORT BY CONSUL OPPENHEIM, OF GOTHENBURG.

I have the honor to forward herewith tables showing the traffic and income of the Swedish railroads during the calendar year 1880. The statements show that the receipts of the state railways for 1880 exceeded those of 1879 by 2,194,375.43 kr., equal to 15.42 per cent.; the excess of the private roads for the year was 3,877,944.16 kr. per cent., equal to 36.78 per cent. The combined earnings of both systems were 30,851,467.59 kr. in 1880, as against 24,779,148 kr. in 1879, showing an increase of 6,072,319.59 kr.=24.51 per cent. There were no material changes in the rates of fare and freight during 1880, and the increase may therefore be looked upon as representing a proportionate improvement in the general commerce of the country. There are as yet no data to be obtained upon the expenditure and net income of the private roads; for the government system, the chief of the railway bureau recently laid before the Riksdag a condensed statement of which the figures are embodied in Table No. 3, herewith inclosed. The gross earnings as given in that statement exceed the amounts shown by Table No. 1 by 75,921 kr. for 1879 and by 61,545.57 kr. for 1880, which discrepancies are to be accounted for by premium on bonds, or similar items of income not properly to be included in gross earnings.

The amount of capital invested in the government railways, including those now building, is estimated at 212,000,000 kr. The lines in operation have cost in round numbers 197,500,000 kr. for a total length of 181.6 Swedish miles, being at the rate of 1,088,000 kr. per Swedish mile. Upon the capital invested in the finished lines the net earnings this year have been equal to 3.29 per cent., being the highest net income thus far realized in any one year.

The passengers carried were distributed amongst the different classes, as follows: 1 per cent. of the whole number went by first class, 16 per cent. by the second, and 83 per cent. by the third; of the income derived from passenger traffic the first-class passengers paid 8 per cent., the second class 33 per cent., and third class 59 per cent.

ERNEST L. OPPENHEIM,
Consul.

UNITED STATES CONSULATE,
Gothenburg, March 12, 1881.

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TABLE No. 2.—*Traffic returns of the Swedish railways owned by stock companies for the calendar year* 1880.

Month.	Length in Swedish miles.	Traffic.					Income.					
		Number of passengers.	Number of horses.	Number of dogs.	Number of cattle.	Merchandise.	Passengers and extra baggage.	Mails, corpses, carriages, horses, and dogs.	Merchandise.	Cattle.	Miscellaneous.	Total.
						S. centners.	*Crowns.*	*Crowns.*	*Crowns.*	*Crowns.*	*Crowns.*	*Swed. crowns.*
January	295. 5	223, 837	286	677	4, 394	5, 127, 510	241, 342. 81	27, 993. 85	645, 868. 85	6, 228. 11	14, 955. 12	936, 388. 74
February	295. 5	198, 023	369	593	6, 060	6, 010, 484	212, 269. 03	27, 211. 24	750, 923. 42	7, 968. 05	17, 573. 69	1, 015, 945. 43
March	295. 5	274, 878	504	693	11, 015	6, 932, 287	293, 810. 88	36, 639. 60	867, 675. 85	13, 141. 08	17, 040. 54	1, 228, 307. 95
April	296. 9	293, 608	864	598	15, 782	7, 368, 858	300, 340. 40	30, 653. 69	891, 892. 07	12, 983. 42	16, 346. 62	1, 252, 216. 20
May	298. 4	333, 050	830	661	17, 789	8, 415, 752	326, 783. 46	30, 817. 49	945, 182. 94	9, 706. 70	21, 130. 30	1, 333, 620. 89
June	298. 4	409, 622	1, 034	815	13, 762	8, 580, 385	382, 308. 25	36, 802. 76	932, 381. 68	9, 097. 47	17, 087. 59	1, 377, 677. 75
July	298. 4	388, 306	1, 305	1, 169	10, 679	9, 031, 556	370, 618. 04	31, 458. 36	954, 565. 30	5, 927. 75	22, 736. 65	1, 385, 306. 10
August	298. 4	376, 181	410	1, 557	31, 305	7, 971, 515	370, 993. 92	28, 581. 27	875, 693. 71	7, 942. 48	20, 033. 23	1, 303. 244. 61
September	298. 4	319, 008	1, 074	1, 849	27, 591	8, 242, 362	328, 063. 43	36, 972. 14	944, 302. 49	14, 998. 88	19, 663. 81	1, 344, 000. 75
October	298. 4	306, 940	968	1, 264	16, 068	7, 348, 887	311, 719. 80	30, 116. 05	868, 557. 56	11, 513. 58	19, 621. 40	1, 241. 528. 39
November	306. 3	231, 606	418	725	7, 017	6, 015, 072	240, 101. 21	28, 257. 40	759, 360. 83	7, 977. 26	15, 621. 14	1, 051, 317. 84
December	306. 3	251, 200	388	735	5, 998	4, 564, 093	266, 010. 00	37, 599. 00	621, 914. 91	7, 261. 36	20, 673. 24	953, 458. 51
Total		3, 576, 259	8, 450	11, 336	167, 460	85, 608, 761	3, 644, 361. 23	383, 102. 85	10, 058, 319. 61	114, 746. 14	222, 483. 33	14, 423, 013. 16

The Swedish mile is equal to 6.6387 English statute miles (nearly 6¾). The Swedish centner is equal to 93.71 pounds avoirdupois.
Income in 1879 was 10,545,069 crowns (krone.)

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TABLE No. 1.—*Traffic returns of the Swedish Government railways for the calendar year 1880.*

Month.	Length in Swedish miles.	Traffic.					Income.					
		Number of passengers.	Number of horses.	Number of dogs.	Number of cattle.	Merchandise.	Passengers and extra baggage.	Mails, corpses, carriages, horses, and dogs.	Merchandise.	Cattle.	Miscellaneous.	Total.
						S. centners.	*Crowns.*	*Crowns.*	*Crowns.*	*Crowns.*	*Crowns.*	*Swed. crowns.*
January	180.6	199,553	395	738	5,671	3,177,158	389,597.78	29,275.84	817,209.40	14,550.31	12,297.45	1,262,930.78
February	180.6	176,068	695	657	6,929	3,490,296	336,257.91	30,116.23	907,073.50	17,908.05	12,400.42	1,303,756.11
March	180.6	240,401	819	673	11,497	4,086,218	470,266.83	33,576.62	1,051,929.95	31,234.19	14,739.56	1,601,747.15
April	180.6	243,245	1,093	574	29,180	3,534,350	548,380.40	36,414.84	878,717.11	47,667.99	12,784.67	1,523,965.01
May	180.6	283,980	815	763	24,260	3,098,339	531,463.19	32,211.53	708,970.88	40,438.24	11,978.22	1,325,062.06
June	180.6	330,769	1,231	937	15,942	3,097,748	604,706.41	35,358.61	665,476.15	29,504.94	11,667.06	1,346,713.17
July	180.6	295,722	1,288	1,080	9,988	3,331,870	583,260.20	33,545.95	659,319.19	12,368.92	9,952.99	1,298,447.25
August	180.6	318,445	540	1,654	21,283	2,840,827	680,797.04	30,722.01	598,734.86	20,415.41	9,343.00	1,340,012.32
September	181.3	272,691	959	1,522	23,373	3,064,729	573,983.18	35,271.45	697,675.05	38,254.51	10,181.18	1,355,365.37
October	182.0	263,945	989	1,210	22,248	3,264,790	525,222.48	34,163.24	789,764.21	35,973.11	11,656.16	1,396,779.20
November	182.0	191,610	562	729	9,430	3,379,877	386,097.73	29,613.03	879,248.70	20,330.80	10,652.98	1,325,943.24
December	182.0	216,145	375	833	7,545	3,127,312	425,008.84	28,002.31	868,312.56	17,134.96	9,274.10	1,347,732.77
Total		3,032,574	9,761	11,370	187,346	39,493,514	6,055,041.99	388,271.66	9,522,431.56	325,781.43	136,927.79	16,428,454.43

The Swedish mile is equal to 6.6387 English statute miles (nearly 6¾). The Swedish centner is equal to 95.71 pounds avoirdupois.
Income in 1879 was 14,234,079 crowns (krone.)

TABLE No. 3.—*Extract from the fiscal statement of the Swedish Government railways for the year 1880.*

	1879.	1880.	Changes in the year 1880.	
			Increase.	Decrease.
	Swedish crowns.	*Swedish crowns.*	*Swedish crowns.*	*Swedish crowns.*
Gross income	14,310,000	16,490,000	2,180,000	.....
Expenditure	9,903,100	9,983,200	80,100	.....
Net earnings	4,406,900	6,506,800	2,099,900	.....
	Swedish miles.	*Swedish miles.*	*Swedish miles.*	*Swedish miles.*
Length of lines operated	164.2	181.6	17.4	.....
	Per cent.	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*
Proportion of expenditures to gross income.	69.204	60.541	.....	8.663
	Swedish crowns.	*Swedish crowns.*	*Swedish crowns.*	*Swedish crowns.*
Gross income per Swedish mile.	87,150	90,800	3,654	.....
Expenditure per Swedish mile.	60,311	54,974	.....	5,337
Net earnings per Swedish mile.	26,839	35,830	8,991	.....
The expenditure consisted of the five following items; the figures show the amounts chargeable to each account during 1879 and 1880 per Swedish mile:				
Office expenses	1,639	1,427	.....	212
Road-bed	16,219	15,175	.....	1,044
Transportation	18,074	16,362	.....	1,712
Motive power	24,322	21,854	.....	2,468
Losses	57	156	99	.....
Total	60,311	54,974	.....	5,337

The Swedish mile = 6.6387 English statute miles.

NOTES.

Sulphur exports of Japan.—Mr. Bingham, the United States minister at Tokio, Japan, has informed the State Department, that he received a communication under date of May 10, 1881, from Mr. Wooyeno, His Imperial Japanese Majesty's acting minister of foreign affairs, inclosing a proclamation that on and after May 15, 1881, sulphur can be exported from the Japanese Empire free of duty.

Mexican Railways.—Consul Sutton, of Matamoras, in a dispatch dated May 11, 1881, says:

> Railways form the chief topic of interest all along this border. The road from this city toward Monterey, mentioned in previous reports, is the first one on this side of the Rio Grande. The work is still going on under the original company, but it is understood that the transfer to the Palmer-Sullivan combination has been effected and approved by the Mexican Government, and that agents of that company will soon be here to take charge. All of the railway material, already purchased, except the steel rails and fastenings, have been bought in the United States.

American Steam Communication with Colombia.—Consul Smith, of Carthagena, says that Señor E. Martinez, Consul of the United States of Colombia, at New Orleans, had informed him that a line of American steamers would soon be established to ply between the latter city and Colombian ports. Consul Smith's dispatch is dated May 23, 1881.

Cotton-seed Oil Tariff in Italy.—Consul-General Richmond, of Rome, informs the Department that the law increasing the duty on imported cotton-seed oil from 6 lire, the old tariff, to 20 lire per quintal, pure or mixed, and imposing a tax of 14 lire per quintal on cotton-seed oil manufactured in Italy went into effect on the 22d of April, last. It was understood, however, at Rome that, in anticipation of the passage of this law, the importers of Genoa, Leghorn, Naples, and Venice had a six months' supply on hand when the new tariff took effect.

American Pork in Switzerland.—Commercial Agent De Zeyk, of St. Galle, under date of April 22, informs the Department that Mr. Hosly, of New Glaris, Wis., had just called to inform him that having lately come to Europe for the inspection of his retail shops at Winterthur, Gossau, and St. Galle, he was invited by Mr. Schenk, the member of the federal council for the department of the interior, to personally present his case, and that, during that interview, Mr. Schenk had, in so many words, told him to "go ahead," and to import all the pork, ham, corned beef, &c., that he could sell, without any fear of a "prohibition" from the Swiss Federal Government.

The new Docks at St. Nazaire.—Commercial Agent Gifford, of Nantes, in forwarding to the Department a report from the consular agent at St. Nazaire, which will appear in the next number of these publications, says that the people of Western France claim that the opening of the new docks—said to be the largest docks in the world—will, when the Panama Canal is completed, make St. Nazaire "the Liverpool of France." If the canal were completed, adds Mr. Gifford, St. Nazaire would, as the point of French territory nearest the American continent,

become the natural point of departure of lines of steamers for Australia, and other Eastern countries, as well as of additional lines to Central and South America.

To American Toy Manufacturers.—The Department has been advised by the legation of France in Washington that the coloring of toys by means of poisonous substances having been declared dangerous to the health of children, certain measures have been taken in France to prevent their sale. These measures apply to toys manufactured in foreign countries, as well as to toys of French manufacture; and the French customs service has received orders not to permit toys of the above description to enter that country. Shippers violating these regulations will expose themselves to the annoyance of having their goods seized at the French customs-houses.

Census of Austria.—The census of Austria was taken on the last day of 1880. The returns of population from several cities have been published, showing a large percentage of increase in the towns since the census of 1869–'70. Below are stated the comparative returns of the two enumerations for the capital and largest city of the empire, Vienna:

	Households.	Inhabitants.
In 1880	143 160	707,532
In 1870	114,383	607,514
Increase	28,777	100,018

The foregoing figures present the results of the first computation, and for 1880 show the average number of persons to each household (ménage) to be a small fraction above 4.9. The totals represent the population included within the municipality of Vienna, and exclude the suburban communes (vororte). If these last were included, the number of inhabitants would exceed 1,000,000.—(From a report of Minister Kasson, of Vienna.)

Public Debt of Austria.—The secretary of legation at Vienna presents the following data, extracted from the statements published in that city May 19, 1881, showing the condition of the public debt of Austria at the end of December, 1880:

The general public debt amounted to 2,755,127,590 florins, 3 kreuzers, with an annually accruing interest of 113,732,817 florins, 63 kreuzers.

The debt of Austria proper (Cisleithania) reached the sum of 408,616,425 florins, 80 kreuzers, the annual interest payable thereon being 16,442,049 florins, 23 kreuzers.

The total amount of these two debts is 3,164,444,015 florins, 83 kreuzers, and that of the annual interest thereon 30,174,866 florins, 86 kreuzers.

The obligations payable by the several respective provinces, but guaranteed by Austria, which were issued since 1848 for the liberation of the soil from feudal services, tithes, &c., represent a capital sum of 170,155,482 florins, requiring an annual interest payment of 8,434,496 florins, 70 kreuzers.

In comparison with the end of December, 1879, the general debt has diminished 7,643,813 florins, while the Cisleithanian debt has been augmented by 16,243,843 florins, 62 kreuzers.

The common floating indebtedness, consisting in state notes of the denomination of 1, 5, and 50 florins, which circulate as money, attained the sum of 327,737,769 florins.

In view of the contingency that further and more precise information shall be desired, I herewith inclose the printed statements (in duplicate) before referred to.

Commercial affairs in Hamburg.—Under date of April 5, 1880, Consul Wilson reports that a very large falling off in the exports from that port to the United States for the first quarter of 1881 has taken place as compared to the corresponding quarter of last year. This is owing, writes the consul,

mainly to the fact that our markets have become overstocked with the of goods usually sent from this district. I have no especial comme make on this. In general terms, I may say that the present outlook in mercial circles here is the reverse of cheerful. The uncertainty res ing the tariff question unfavorably affects all the mercantile cla There are two parties in this community who take a deep intere this contemplated change. Unquestionably the large merchants solid capitalists and other conservatives of Hamburg are strenuc opposed to entering into the "Zollverein" (Customs Union), w the small tradesmen and manufacturers favor it. The former beli the change would be destructive to their best interest and the c mercial glory of Hamburg, while the latter think it would be tea away the barriers that shut them off from doing business successfi in the interior of their own country. While all appears quiet on surface, there is a deep and bitter feeling beneath, so much so tha has a paralyzing effect on commercial transaction generally. It can distrust, discontent, and, whether true or not, most of the ills of tra at present are laid at that door. Many opposed to the change have come so tired of this agitation that they are ready to go into the rangement, believing their business cannot be worse and may be bette

American Finances.—The following is an extract from a report fro Consul Wilson, of Hamburg, dated April 5, 1881:

In this connection, I may say that the splendid exhibit, "statement showing th financial and economic transactions of the United States of America for the four yea ended March 1, 1881," issued by the Secretary of the United States Treasury on th 1st ultimo, created a very decided sensation throughout Germany. The copies of sai statement transmitted to me were sent to the leading journals of this neighborhood which published them, and generally with laudatory comments. As samples of thes notices, I transmit herewith copies of the *Hamburg Handelsblatt* and *Fremden Blatt*, o the 18th ultimo, with translations of the articles.

Public Schools in Vienna.—Mr. Deleplaine, secretary of legation at Vienna, April 25, 1881, submits the following from the official report of the municipal board of education of that city:

It is stated that the number of primary and secondary public schools in this capital in 1879–'80 amounted to 125, in which 63,955 childen, consisting of 30,999 boys and 32,956 girls, received elementary instruction, while 1,085 male and 573 female teachers were employed. In the numeration of children attending these schools were included 1,830 boys and 1,925 girls of Sclave, 307 boys and 517 girls of Hungarian nationality, 73 boys and 121 girls of other nationalities not Germanic. All the remaining children were of Germanic nationality.

American Cattle in England.—Consul Jones, of Newcastle-upon-Tyne, in a dispatch dated May 5, 1881, which will appear in the next number of these reports, announcing the breaking out of the foot and mouth disease among the cattle of Northumberland and Durham, transmits the following extract from the Newcastle Daily Journal:

HEALTHY STATE OF AMERICAN CATTLE.—In the year 1879 340 head of cattle arrived and were slaughtered and dressed at Tyne dock, being the first lot imported into the Tyne. In 1880 2,042 head arrived, extending from April 12 to October 18, and from fifteen different cargoes the Jews of Newcastle-upon-Tyne were supplied, being decidedly the primest quality of beef that comes to hand at that season of the year. And we may here state that the Jews are the most particular race of people upon the face of the earth regarding the wholesome state of their butcher meat. They kill every living thing that they consume themselves in their own peculiar way, and do not leave any doubt or suspicion to be wrangled over or disputed by veterinary surgeons or privy council inspectors, as the priest takes the life of the animal and strictly superintends the dressing until the skirts are cut; then he examines the lungs, and should they be in the least adherent to the ribs, it is pronounced not "cosher," that

is to say, unfit for human food; "cosher" being a Hebrew word meaning sound. During the whole of the arrivals there has not been one unsound animal amongst them.

Petroleum discoveries and development in Italy.—Consul Crain, of Milan, writes as follows concerning the petroleum discoveries and development in Italy:

Statements having appeared in American and English newspapers of the discovery of mineral oil at different places in Italy, I have taken some pains to ascertain the facts. It appears that at Tocco, in the Abbruzzi, about forty miles west of the Adriatic, surface indications of petroleum have been noticed many years. A small stream which issues from the mountains at this point and empties into the Piscara River floats considerable quantities of mineral oil, especially after rains. On the strength of these indications a company known as the French-Italian Petroleum Company, organized about one year ago, has put down three wells of the depth, respectively, of 510 feet, 824 feet, and 1,300 feet. In only one of these (that of 510 feet) was oil found. From this well is pumped about two barrels per day of a substance of the consistency of tar, and yielding 20 per cent. of burning fluid. The residuum is used in the manufacture of varnish. The oil is of poor quality for lighting purposes.

Near Voghera, in Piedmont, the same company have sunk five wells varying in depth from 400 to 900 feet, but without finding oil. Here, also, oil is found at the surface, and about ten barrels of this have been collected during the year. It is light colored, poor for illuminating purposes, and of the specific gravity of 28°. In the borings no rock was encountered, the earth at a depth of 800 feet resembling that at the surface.

Some years ago at Casalmaggiore, near Parma, a well was sunk to a depth of 900 feet for the purpose of obtaining salt water. This well flows salt water having a slight admixture of petroleum, but nothing has been done to develop petroleum at this point.

The foregoing, I believe, embraces all that is important in the way of discovery or development of mineral oil in Italy.

The Tea Trade of Foochow.—The following statement regarding the movement of tea sent from the port of Foochow during the season of 1880 is from a report by Consul Wingate of that city:

The new tea commenced to arrive from the country the 8th of May.

The first direct shipment of tea to London was on the 28th of May. Prior to this a small quantity of Pehling tea had been sent to Hong-Kong. The last clearance for London was on the 25th of January, 1881.

The first invoice for the United States was certified at this consulate on the 12th of June and the last on the 7th of February, 1881.

	Pounds.
Total export, as per customs returns	110,728,453
Total last year	98,498,773
Excess of 1880 over 1879	12,229,680

An increase is noted in the amount sent to every country excepting South Africa and Russia via Tientsin.

The quantity of brick tea sent to Russia via Tientsin during the season of 1879 was 13,315,945 pounds; during the season of 1880 it was 8,145,860 pounds; decrease, 5,170,085 pounds.

The fear of a war between China and Russia probably accounts for the marked decrease in the exportation of brick tea.

The whole amount of tea sent from this port to the United States, as per invoices certified at this consulate, during the season of 1880, was 4,254,605 pounds; during the season of 1879, was 2,089,690 pounds; during the season of 1878, was 1,923,192 pounds. Of the tea sent the past season 2,522,990 pounds was Oolong, 1,658,090 pounds was Congou and Souchong, 73,525 pounds was mixed sorts and undescribed; 458,567 pounds was sent via San Francisco, 3,796,038 pounds was sent via New York. Of the tea sent to New York, 297,397 pounds was sent via Amoy, 109,464 pounds was sent via Hong Kong, 3,389,177 pounds was sent direct. The 3,389,177 pounds of tea shipped dirictly to New York was sent in five British steamers which took part of their cargo at other ports. One hundred and twelve thousand nine hundred and sixty-nine pounds of the tea sent to San Francisco and 653,216 pounds of that sent to New York was declared to be in transit for British Columbia and Canada.

The tea season of 1880 has been a very unfortunate one for the Chinese tea men, and not a profitable one for the foreign merchants.

The Chinese tea men began to make large losses early in the season, and latterly it is said that foreigners are suffering the same way.

The Chinese are not anxious for the opening of the next season, and it is probable that the season of 1881 will not commence as early as did the last by at least a fortnight.

The new Hungarian Loan.—Minister Kasson, under date Vienna, May 23, 1881, reports as follows concerning the new Hungarian loan:

In pursuance of a law passed by both houses of the Hungarian Diet, and sanctioned by the Crown, for the conversion of the Hungarian six per cent. gold loan, subscriptions to a new loan for the sum of 160 millions of florins, bearing four per cent. interest payable in gold, were opened on the 19th instant. The rate of subscription was fixed at 77½ per cent. in gold, being at about 89 per cent. in Austrian paper money. Now it has been ascertained that more than 4,000 millions of florins or 10,000 millions of francs have been subscribed. A favorable result was certainly anticipated, but in the present case it has far exceeded the most sanguine expectations, especially when it is compared with the recent successful issue of the five per cent. loan of Austria referred to in my No. 460. Hungary, by reason of her less cultivated soil, less advanced civilization, more sparse population, inferior means of communication, reduced amount of capital in the country, and her greater local distance from the moneyed centres of Europe, has always been obliged hitherto to contract loans on even more disadvantageous terms than Austria. The subscriptions in Austria-Hungary and Germany are definitely estimated at 530 millions and 892 millions of florins, while those in Paris and in London are declared to be, respectively, more than 1,600 millions and 1,000 millions of florins.

In respect to the allotment for Austria-Hungary, the following distribution is announced:

Of nomin. gold-fl. 100 to incl. gold-fl. 900. Nom. gold-fl. 100 in 4 per cent. gold rentes.

Of nomin. gold-fl. 1,000 to incl. gold-fl. 1,900. Nom. gold-fl. 200 in 4 per cent. gold rentes.

Of nomin. gold-fl. 2,000 to incl. gold fl. 4,900. Nom. gold-fl. 400 in 4 per cent. gold rentes.

Of nomin. gold-fl. 5,000 to incl. gold-fl. 99,900, seven per cent. of the subscribed amount, yet not less than fl. 400.

Of nomin. gold-fl. 100,000 to incl. gold-fl. 499,900, 6 per cent. of the subscribed amount, yet not less than fl. 7,000.

Of nomin. gold fl. 500,000 to incl. gold-fl. 999.900, 5 per cent. of the subscribed amount, yet not less than fl. 30,000.

Of nomin. gold-fl. 1,000,000 to incl. gold-fl. 4,999.900, 4 per cent. of the subscribed amount, yet not less than fl. 50,000.

Of nomin. gold-fl. 5,000,000 and over 2 per cent. of the subscribed amount, yet not less than fl. 200,000.

In the calculation of percentage as above, the sums falling under fifty florins are disregarded, while sums of fifty florins and over are calculated as for hundred florins in full.

From the foregoing scale of allotment it is apparent that subscribers for small amounts are for practical, if not political, reasons specially favored.

Trade and Agricultural prospects of Tripoli.—Consul Jones, of Tripoli, Barbary States, gives the following statistics concerning the trade at that port during the first quarter of the present year, and the gloomy crop outlook:

The total trade at this port for the past quarter (ending March 31) amounts to $507,045.60, of which $246,304.96 are imports, and $340,740.64 are exports, showing a balance of $94,435.68 in favor of exports. No particular reason can be assigned for this surplus in exports.

Imports: Cotton goods, $110,975.00; woolen goods, $20,975.10; petroleum, $1,652.65; oil, $18,498.65; silk (manufactured), $7,334.00; wheat, $1,258.93; barley, $8,980.09.

Exports: Ostrich feathers, $106,041.92; ivory, $4,992.13; Esparto grass, $201.621.94.

In my report for the quarter ending December 31, 1880, I mentioned the great need in which the grain stood of immediate rain, and the danger there was if the drought continued, of an almost total failure of crops. It is now (May 5) with much regret that I have to report that owing to want of rain the crops have suffered a great deal. According to reports received from several of the grain districts, only one-fourth the usual yield can be expected. Besides the want of rain and consequent insufficient

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grain crops, we have had the "sirocco" much earlier than usual, lasting six days at a time, during which the thermometer rose as high as 95° in the shade. These winds consume all moisture, and leave every description of plant parched and withered. A dry season not only deprives the poor Arab of his usual supply of grain, but decimates his flocks as well.

Duties and Taxes in Tahiti for 1881.—According to a report from Consul Atwater, the following are the duties, taxes, &c., in force in the Friendly Islands for 1881:

The tariff of duties and taxes remains the same until the 1st of July, 1881, when it will be as below enumerated.

Duties: 13 per cent. ad valorem. Exemptions, live animals for food and machinery for agricultural and manufacturing purposes.

Absinthe, gin, whisky, and alcohol, 12 per cent. ad valorem and 40 cents per liter.

Bitters, brandy, and rum 12 per cent. ad valorem and 25 cents per liter.

Vermouth, liqueurs of all kinds, and dessert wines in barrels or bottles, 12 per cent. ad valorem and 20 cents per liter.

Mother of pearl shell, $8 per 1,000 kilos.

Licenses: Merchants, consignees of vessels, selling at wholesale and retail wines and liquors, not less than one dozen bottles, $100 per annum and 10 per cent. on the value of the business premises; merchants, not consignees of vessels, nor selling liquids, $25 per annum and 15 per cent. on the value of business premises. Captains or supercargoes selling without having an establishment ashore, $100 per annum. Colporteurs, $20. Contractors, $4 and 50 per cent. on the value of business premises. All other professions, doctors, lawyers, and auctioneers exempt, $5 and 20 per cent. on the value of business premises. To arrive at the latter, 12 per cent. is taken on the value of the property as an annual rental upon which the per cent. is collected. Thus a business property valued at $20,000, or of an annual rental $2,400, would at 10 per cent. pay $240.

Liquor saloons, $800. Beer saloons, selling only local-made, $100. Distillers, $120, and 8 cents per liter on the local consumption of their liquors. *Bonded goods* one-half of 1 per cent. ad valorem, and 2 cents per ton measurement per day. Transshipment one-half of 1 per cent. ad valorem.

Wharfage: For vessels up to 100 tons 2 cents per ton, and per day; over 100 tons, $2 per day. For each square meter occupied by merchandise after eight days, 2 cents per day.

Pilotage: For the first 100 tons 80 cents for each 10 tons; for the next 300 tons 70 cents for each 10 tons; for the next 100 tons 60 cents for each 10 tons; for the next 500 tons or less 30 cents for each 10 tons. Vessels under 30 tons exempt from all pilotage.

Pilotage of men of war: Ship, $50; frigate, $40; corvette, $30; an inferior class, $15.

Changing vessel's position, with pilot's assistance, $4.

Light dues: Five cents per ton register for each voyage; vessels entering in distress, exempt.

Buoy, use of, from $1 to $3 per day, according to size of vessel.

Taxes: Poll, $4; poll tax on unmarried women over 16 years of age, $2; road tax, $2.40; furniture tax, 2 per cent. on not over $300, nor less than $60 of value. Less than $60 worth exempt.

Dog tax, $1.

Anticipated revenue from all sources, $200,000.

Protection of cooly laborers in Ceylon.—Consul Morey, of Ceylon, writes as follows concerning the passage of an ordinance for the protection of cooly laborers of that island:

I inclose, herewith, printed copies of an ordinance lately passed by the legislative council, levying an export duty on coffee, tea, cocoa, and cinchona, for the purpose of providing a special fund to defray the cost of medical care of immigrant cooly laborers on up-country estates. Heretofore, a much greater cost, under a more elaborate and expensive medical aid scheme, has been borne by the planters by an acreage assessment on their properties.

The government in bringing forward this modified measure could only have been actuated by a desire to lighten the planters' burden as much as possible without leaving the poorly-paid cooly either destitute of medical assistance, or subject to the necessity of paying for it himself; the latter condition being simply impossible.

Nevertheless, the bill met with fierce opposition in council from the unofficial European element, who desired to raise the money by an additional tax on rice, which already carries a duty of over 14 per cent., and as said rice is almost wholly consumed by immigrant coolies, and is supplied to them at a profit by their employers, an addi-

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tional import duty on it would have had the effect of shifting the incidences of the modified medical aid cost from the planter, who has hitherto paid at an enhanced ration, to the cooly, who now receives for his work scarcely enough pay to provide for his ordinary wants; and because the governor has persisted in having this bill passed in its integrity there is a loud outcry of the press and in European circles, and the planting member of the council has gone so far as to record a protest against it.

Proclamation for the protection of foreigners in Peking.—The United States minister at Peking, in forwarding the accompanying translation of the military proclamation issued by the Chinese authorities, says:

In my No. 152 of April 30, I spoke of rumors current among the Chinese to the effect that some harm was to be done to the property or persons of foreigners in Peking. In my interview with the Teung-li Yamen, on the 23d ultimo (April), I referred to these mischievous reports, and they assured me that they should endeavor to detect the originators of the rumors and to punish them.

At the instance of the foreign office the military authorities have now issued a proclamation, a copy of which I inclose. It has not been communicated to me officially. The translation which I foward to you is of a copy taken from the posters on the streets. The prefect of the district which comprises Peking and the suburbs has issued a similar proclamation.

There is no cause for any solicitude concerning the safety of foreigners in Peking.

Proclamation of En, Ch'ung, and Wen [the Chief Military Authorities of Peking].

Let all you people clearly understand this:

A communication has been received from the Teung-li Yamen reciting as follows: "China and foreign nations have always been on terms of peace since commercial relations were established long ago. The government has the same considerate regard for strangers as for her own subjects, and treats all alike with the same rule of conduct. Now, it has recently come to our ears that many extraordinary stories are going the rounds in the streets and by-lanes. There must be some discontented, meddlesome fellows who invent stories among themselves, and go about spreading them in such a way that it is really to be apprehended that falsehood upon falsehood will foment some real trouble. We have to request that a strict proclamation will be issued to put a stop to this, so that virtuous, law-abiding people may not be deceived by these stories," &c.

Having received the above, it is right that we should issue a public notification. Wherefore, this proclamation. We expect you officers and soldiers of the local guard stations to take careful note that if there be lawless, discontented vagabonds and loafers, as aforesaid, who fabricate stories with a view to creating a disturbance, you are to arrest them on the spot and send them in chains to this office to be severely punished. On no account will any indulgence be shown. And you soldiers and people, we hereby admonish you, on the issuance of this proclamation, to go about your respective duties and not give ear to false stories, whereby you may involve yourselves in trouble. Let all concerned tremble and obey this special proclamation.

Kuang Hui, 7th year, 4th month, 1st day.

Necessity for Passports.—The Department is frequently in receipt of information from United States consuls complaining of the great annoyance and embarrassment caused by the omission of United States citizens, especially those naturalized and returning to their native countries, to procure passports before leaving this country. The consul has no evidence of the identity of the stranger, and not unfrequently, when appearances indicate that the traveling or sojourning party claiming

protection of the consul has no legal right to do so, the party becomes "angry, insulting, and threatening, declaring an intention to inform the government and the people of the United States that such legation or consulate refuses to furnish them aid and protection," or if satisfactory evidence of identity is furnished, the party regards the required fee of $5 "an imposition." The Department therefore calls particular attention to the fact that no citizen, native or naturalized, when traveling abroad for pleasure or private business can legitimately expect protection or aid from United States legations on consulates unless provided with the official indentification of a passport.

[No. 1 in No. 147.]

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF SALVADOR.

Table of IMPORTS of the REPUBLIC of SALVADOR for the year ending September 30, 1880, prepared by Minister Logan.

Articles.	United States.	California.	South America.	Spain.	Guatemala.	Nicaragua.	Honduras.	Costa Rica.	England.	Germany.	France.	Italy.	Other countries.	Total of—	Values.
	Pkgs.	*Pkgs.*	*Pkgs.*	*Pkgs.*	*Pkgs.*	*Pkgs.*	*Pkgs.*	*Pkgs.*	*Pkgs.*	*Pkgs.*	*Pkgs.*	*Pkgs.*	*Pkgs.*	*Pkgs.*	
Cotton in thread and goods	1,215	36	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	16,961	161	1,001	2	.....	19,376	$810,276 42
Linen goods	10	4	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	79	21	10	.....	.....	124	11,995 91
Woolen thread and goods	11	5	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	118	14	82	.....	.....	231	39,532 92
Silk thread and goods	4	4	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	41	4	44	.....	.....	97	29,183 55
Mixed goods	.....	.....	.....	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	79	5	34	.....	.....	119	12,007 54
Provisions	375	2,516	533	7	.....	16	323	70	526	211	1,978	31	5	6,591	54,480 80
Flour	5	45,910	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	45,915	161,956 55
Liquors and wines	911	970	311	115	.....	.....	.....	51	2,263	2,589	20,169	101	28	27,508	133,618 49
China and glassware	132	3	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	374	413	958	1	.....	1,881	29,823 06
Drugs, medicines, and perfumery	1,156	223	33	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	200	629	873	49	1	3,164	54,645 19
Ironware	1,072	489	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,449	282	770	1	.....	5,064	51,979 91
Hardware and various articles	4,951	3,812	505	3	135	91	1	21	10,727	1,385	4,048	42	34	26,355	411,953 87
Straw hats	.....	.....	19	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	19	7,131 00
Printed books	7	9	2	1	.....	.....	.....	14	86	1	91	.....	.....	211	13,780 18
Machinery	1,382	953	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,048	318	241	.....	.....	3,942	61,657 72
Unclassified articles	583	464	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	90	9	375	5	.....	1,485	26,243 36
Money coined	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	384,276 11
	11,764	55,398	1,405	127	135	107	324	156	35,050	6,042	31,274	232	68	142,082	2,294,542 58

Table of EXPORTS of the REPUBLIC of SALVADOR for the year ending September 30, 1880, prepared by Minister Logan.

Articles.	United States.	California.	South America.	Spain.	Guatemala.	Nicaragua.	Honduras.	Costa Rica.	England.	Germany.	France.	Italy.	Other countries.	Total of—	Values.
	Pkgs.	*Pkgs.*	*Pkgs.*	*Pkgs.*	*Pkgs.*	*Pkgs.*	*Pkgs.*	*Pkgs.*	*Pkgs.*	*Pkgs.*	*Pkgs.*	*Pkgs.*	*Pkgs.*	*Pkgs.*	
Indigo	523	.....	39	21	.....	.....	18	.....	4, 259	339	2, 372	248	10	7, 829	$1, 173, 672 50
Rice	100	.....	4, 526	.....	.....	582	15	2, 512	.....	.....	.....	.....	107	7, 842	38, 711 58
Starch	.....	.....	24	.....	.....	4	28	24	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	80	377 76
Balsam	127	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	134	125	23	.....	.....	409	33, 725 00
Coffee	13, 511	32, 713	2, 065	101	.....	10	6	.....	31, 630	11, 971	12, 019	11, 085	.....	115, 111	2, 440, 087 97
Hides	6, 594	.....	.....	.....	.....	14	1	.....	68	753	167	.....	.....	7, 597	43, 007 10
Deerskins	91	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	1	.....	8	.....	.....	.....	.....	101	5, 215 50
Rubber	295	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	21	.....	2	.....	.....	318	15, 834 10
Sugar, inferior	7, 829	1, 222	10	.....	.....	102	.....	200	2, 714	.....	2, 897	.....	.....	14, 974	67, 687 04
Rebozos	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	20	1	13	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	35	8, 959 75
Cigars	10	2	129	.....	15	41	4	802	.....	.....	3	.....	.....	1, 006	27, 493 00
Tobacco, raw	.....	.....	37	.....	290	920	13	3, 040	.....	.....	.....	2	.....	4, 302	56, 491 10
Money coined	23	17	8	.....	10	14	1	2	45	1	16	.....	1	138	158, 925 00
Mineral refuse	7	32	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	577	.....	216	.....	.....	832	93, 417 72
Crude silver	7	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	111	.....	117	.....	.....	235	101, 569 70
Sugar	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	37	134	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	171	343 29
Panela	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	42	119	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	161	459 64
Copper	.....	.....	3	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3	260 50
Fruits	9	.....	3	.....	7	247	14	218	.....	2	.....	.....	12	512	3, 757 61
Manufactures	10	.....	15	.....	6	84	17	27	.....	.....	2	.....	6	167	3, 092 44
	29, 136	33, 986	6, 859	122	328	2, 118	372	6, 838	39, 568	13, 191	17, 834	11, 335	136	161, 823	4, 273, 088 30

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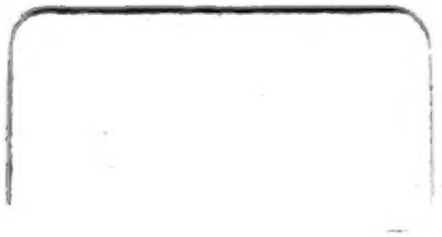

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